BRITAIN SINCE 1815

A CLEAR OUTLINE OF MODERN HISTORY

Industrial·Social·Political

EDINBURGH
JOHN CORMACK

FIFE EDUCATION
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Britain Since 1815

An Outline of Modern History, with Appendices on the British Commonwealth, and on Our Government, Laws, and Duties as Citizens; also A Summary of Events, and Biographical Notes

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For Senior Classes

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PREFACE

The aim of this book is to give the young scholar a clear account of the leading events which began with and followed that great landmark in British History, the Industrial Revolution. The account here set forth has been kept free from such details and side issues as might confuse the young learner. It is hoped that this pruning and the clear treatment of the main events will help to cut away the maze which the average history book presents to the young.

Further simplifying is done with the stories of South Africa, India, Ireland, China and other countries where British interests have been involved, by telling these stories respectively in continuous form, and not in sections sandwiched between other national events for the mere purpose of chronological sequence.

Among the innumerable wonders of this period four outstanding causes may be mentioned out of which great and unforeseen developments arose : (1) the inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Watt, Stevenson, and other famous men which led to the marvellous expansion of British commerce, (2) the foundation and growth of the British dominions beyond the seas, (3) the control of electricity, with its countless applications to domestic and public uses, and (4) the annihilation of distance by motor-transport over the road and through the air. These and the marvels resulting from them are of intense interest to the young, and make this period of outstanding importance to all. There is a dark side to the wondrous pageant, but the gradual reforms in our social conditions, and the steady removal of the slums, are helping to drive the shadows away.

Chapters are included on the British Commonwealth, and on Our Laws and Duties as Citizens, the usefulness of which it is believed will be fully appreciated.

A Summary of Events since 1066, and Biographical Notes on eminent men of the period, are added.

It is hoped that the many illustrations and maps will prove an effective help in making a permanent impression of the events on the minds of young readers.

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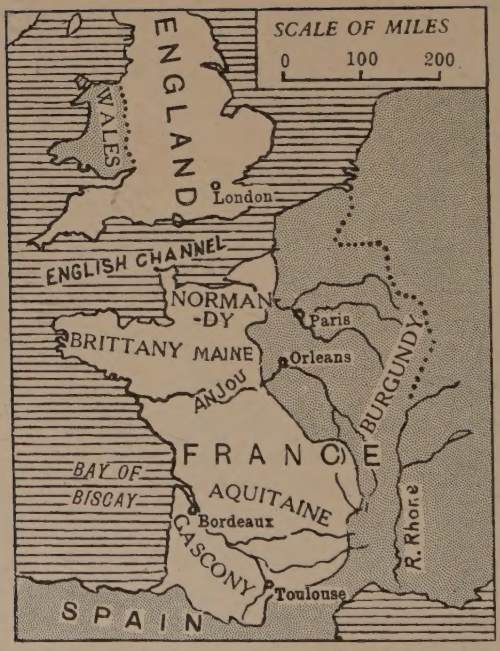


Henry II's Dominions in England and France are shown in white.

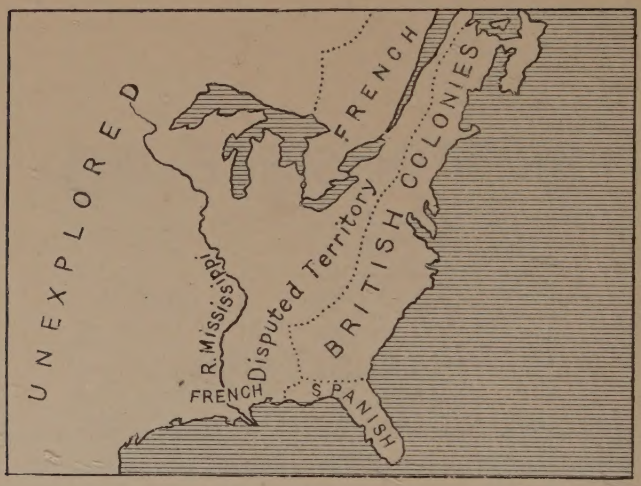
BRITAIN SINCE 1815

INTRODUCTORY.

It is well to remember that although Great Britain is an island, separated by the English Channel from the Continent of Europe, it has at all times been deeply concerned in the affairs of Europe. William the Conqueror was a great landowner in France before he was King of England, and his great-grandson, Henry II. held possessions in France which covered an area larger than England itself.

Under King John, England lost most of her French possessions, but succeeding monarchs strove to regain them, and from 1338 until 1453 a series of wars, loosely called the Hundred Years' War, was waged between England and France, and came to an end only when England gave up her claim to the lost territories.

The story of British expansion abroad is the story of strivings for world dominion between Britain and certain states of Europe, in the successful issue of which Britain became a leading European Power. In the eighteenth century this rivalry lay chiefly between Britain and France, the two nations of Europe which were producing men of bold and adventurous character, eager to plant



Early Settlements in North America.

their country's flag in far away and little known lands. It was then that British expansion really began, and its leading events may be briefly recalled.

As early as 1620, a devoted band of English emigrants—the Pilgrim Fathers—landed in North America, and in course of time their successors founded a series of thirteen states along its eastern seaboard. During this period French explorers were actively at work extending French interests in Canada. In India a similar rivalry existed between Britain and France, the agents of both countries being eager to outstrip each other in gaining control of territory.

The quarrels of the two nations, as to which of them would be master in the great countries of North America and India, lasted during a large part of the eighteenth century, and were only brought to an end by the decisive

Captain Cook.

victories of the British under Robert Clive at Plassey (India) in 1757, and under Charles Wolfe at Quebec (Canada) in 1759.

Of all these great events we may read the details in other history books, in which also we may read of the loss of our American Colonies, by the blunders of British statesmen under King George III. After six years of fighting against the Colonists, the British Government recognised their **Independence,** and the American Colonies became a new sovereign state, the United States of America (1783).

While we were losing America, the great English sailor, Captain Cook, was engaged in adding vast new territories to the British Empire. In 1770 he took possession of Australia and New Zealand in the name of King George III.

After the French losses of Canada and India, there was a suspension of the fighting, but peace did not last long.

The French people were suffering severely, not only from the wars, but from the cruel oppressions of their rulers, and they had no Parliament like that of Britain by which their wrongs might be righted. In 1789, unable longer to bear their oppressions, they rose in a storm of anger against their rulers, and swept them away.

Other history books will tell us about the terrible events of this **Revolution,** and the Reign of Terror in France ; also of the rise of **Napoleon Bonaparte,** and his amazing career. Britain was the only Power which prevented him from becoming master of the entire Continent of Europe. We know how the British Fleet under Nelson, at Trafalgar, swept his navy off the seas in 1805, and how, ten years later, the British armies, under Wellington, supported by Prussian forces under Blücher, finally defeated him at Waterloo.

Leaving out the Great War, the events mentioned are enough to show, what has been pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, that Britain, though an island separated from the Continent, is yet a great European Power, and as such has a weighty duty to discharge in any important crisis which may arise in Europe.

Duke of Wellington.

Napoleon Bonaparte.

1.—The Industrial Revolution.

1. The great defeat of the Emperor Napoleon by Wellington in 1815 brought the war with France to an end, and left Britain free to study her own social conditions. The cost of the war had piled up Britain's National Debt to an enormous figure, and it was only the great expansion of her commerce, and the wealth it was bringing to the country, that enabled Britain to support the Debt. We shall now consider how this great expansion of commerce and wealth began.

2. Before 1770 Britain had been mainly an agricultural country, growing within her own borders all the food required for the support of the people. Yet, long before the age of machinery and steam-power, British goods were well known, and widely used, on the Continent. English cloth was regarded as the finest in the world, and was worn by "half the people of Europe." In equal demand were other British manufactures, including iron goods of all kinds, and countless articles of wool and silk. The stronger made British goods were preferred by many to the more dainty and delicate productions of Paris.

3. In the eighteenth century, however, British manufactures developed more widely and rapidly than in earlier times, owing to new inventions and discoveries. Our largest manufactures were cotton and woollen cloths, and the weaving of these had been carried on in the homes of the weavers, many of whom were their own masters, who sold their goods direct to the merchants.

4. But with the introduction of machinery to do the work of spinning and weaving, all this was changed. Large factories had to be built to hold all the new machines

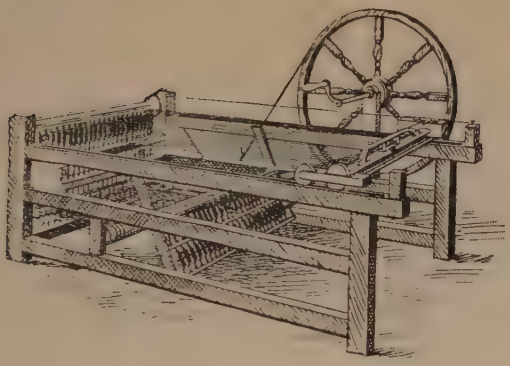
Sir Richard Arkwright.

required to supply the increasing demands for the cloths. Thus the slow "cottage-industry" gave way to the **factory-system,** and the men and women who had hitherto worked in their own homes were now gathered in hundreds under the wide roof of a factory, as the wage-earners of a single employer.

5. Let us now see how some of these changes were brought about. The slow way of producing cloth by the cottage weavers led some clever young men to study how the process could be quickened. One of these was **Richard Arkwright,** a barber's assistant in Bolton. Arkwright was very poor, but he had many new ideas for improving the cotton industry, and one of the first of his inventions was a new kind of spinning-frame which, with the help of a wealthy friend named Strutt, he set up in a mill near Matlock, in Derbyshire.

6. It was worked by water-power, and so was called a "water-frame." The success of this machine in the rapid production of yarns set Arkwright's fertile mind to make many other improvements in the machinery of the mills, and in time he became a very wealthy man.

7. Equally important was the spinning-jenny invented by **James Hargreaves,** a poor weaver of Blackburn, in Lancashire. With it a great many spindles placed in a



Hargreaves' Spinning-Jenny.

row, and operated by a single wheel, could produce many threads at once. Spinning thus became a much more rapid process. Hargreaves kept his machine a secret, and worked it in his own cottage. But his wife was so proud of it that she spoke about it to some of the neighbouring weavers, with the result that they broke into his house and wrecked the machine. He removed to Nottingham, where he took out a patent for it, and the spinning-jenny became as widely used as Arkwright's spinning-frame.

8. These two machines greatly helped to speed up supplies, but they were not yet perfect, for the threads which they produced were not always of the proper strength and quality. A poor lad named **Samuel Crompton,** who worked in a cotton-mill in Bolton, studied day and night how to construct a machine which would produce a reliable thread, and at last he succeeded. It was named the "spinning-mule," and, as it combined the inventions of both Arkwright and Hargreaves, it in time took the place of the earlier machines in the mills.

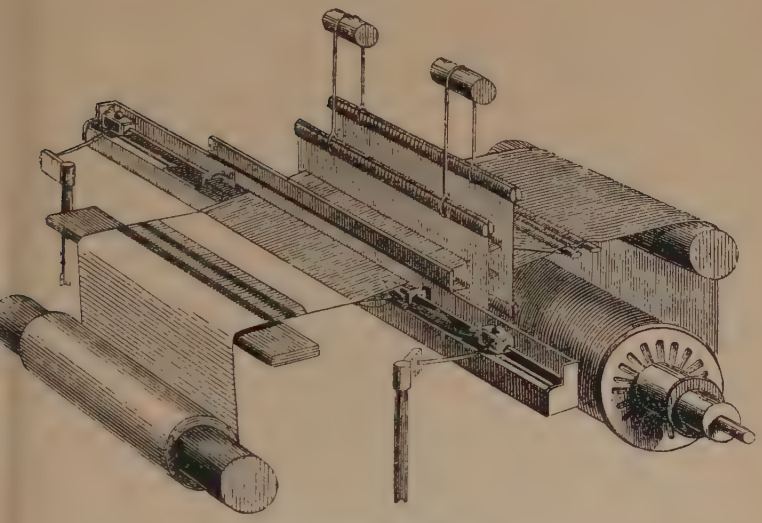
Samuel Crompton.

Thomas Telford.

9. Like that of many another young genius, Crompton's lot was a hard one. While working out his invention he had to keep his materials in a secret place. The weavers hated all the new machinery placed in the mills, and wrecked the machines when they could. Nor could they be altogether blamed, for they were convinced that their own jobs must suffer from the use of these inventions.

10. It was another kind of misfortune that awaited Crompton. When he was able to show the secret of his invention to the master-weavers, they made a bargain with him for the use of it which they afterwards broke. Once in possession of his secret, they basely robbed him of his rights. Friends came to his assistance, and he set up as a weaver on his own account. Later on the Government, realising the importance of his invention, granted him a sum of money, but he died a poor man.

11. These great advances in spinning the threads would have been of less importance if the art of *weaving* them together into cloth had not been improved also. In



Cartwright's Power-Loom.

1785 **Edmund Cartwright,** a native of Nottingham, invented the power-loom, by which the weaving was done much more quickly than by hand-looms. It proved a great success, but the weavers at first would have none of it. They burnt down the first large mill in which many of the new looms had been placed. In this same year cotton mills were opened in Glasgow and Paisley.

Statue of James Watt.

2.—The Steam-Engine—Roads—Trade Expansion.

1. In the earlier days of coal-mining one of the greatest difficulties in the working of the mines was how to get rid of the water which gathered in them. Many ways of pumping were tried, sometimes by man-power, sometimes by horse-power, but the cost was so great that many mines could not afford it, and had to close down.

2. Early in the eighteenth century Thomas Newcomen invented an engine worked by combined steam and air pressure, for the purpose of pumping the water away, but

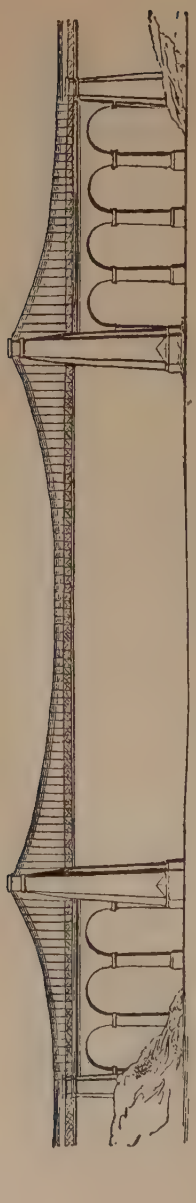
it did not prove satisfactory, because it consumed a great amount of coal, and allowed too much steam to be wasted. This invention of Newcomen's was only a *sort* of steam-engine. But it gave an idea to **James Watt,** a native of Greenock.

3. Watt was examining a small model of Newcomen's engine one day in the College of Glasgow, and found that it had many defects. Thinking carefully over it, he decided that he could construct a better engine himself. The worst feature of Newcomen's engine was that it wasted too much steam, and Watt's great idea was to make a separate cylinder by the aid of which the steam already used could be used over again.

4. Thus was Watt the inventor of the real steam-engine. He completed it in 1769, and very soon it was in extensive use in the mines, not only for pumping, but for raising coal to the surface, and taking the miners up and down the shafts. Later on, Watt's engine was applied to work the machinery of mills and factories everywhere.

5. It was now necessary in the interests of rapidly growing business to improve the condition of the **roads.** These were so bad that it was very difficult to send goods from one place to another. Most of them were no better than horse-tracks, miry and full of ruts. In wet weather a carriage which ventured along them had every chance of being stuck altogether in the mud. To travel 30 miles a day in summer and 25 in winter was considered good going for a stage-coach. To go from Glasgow to London was a 14 days' journey.

6. **Thomas Telford,** a native of Dumfriesshire, was the first great road-maker since Roman times. In the early years of the nineteenth century, before railways were thought about, Telford passed many busy years in England constructing canals, and building many roads



Elevation of the Menai Suspension Bridge.

and bridges, among which is the well-known bridge across the Menai Strait, which connects the island of Anglesey with Carnarvonshire. In Scotland he built the Broomielaw Bridge, Glasgow, and the Dean Bridge, Edinburgh, as well as more than a thousand miles of roads. Another great road-maker of this period was **John Loudon Macadam,** whose name indeed is used to describe the special kind of road surfaces he made.

7. Macadam's method was to cover the roads with loose stones, broken into small pieces of about the same size. The weight of the wheeled traffic helped to fit together the broken points and sides of the stones, and to wear them down into a fairly smooth surface. When the surface became too greatly worn, fresh metal was spread over it. In those days such things as rubber tyres were not dreamed of, and the loose-metalled roads suited well enough the iron-shod wheels of the horse-drawn vehicles.

8. The immense increase in road traffic, both light and heavy, in recent years, requires our roads to be much stronger than they needed to be in Macadam's time. There is now a constant stream of motor traffic—cars, vans, buses, lorries—

speeding along our highways, and the loose stonework of past years has now been bound together by a mixture of tar and bitumen or asphalte. In our cities this rigid mixture is usually laid on a bed of concrete. Steam-rollers press it into a solid mass, and when it hardens it offers a powerful resistance to the vibrations of heavy traffic.

9. Another great engineer and bridge-builder of Telford's time was **John Rennie.** The bridges he built were noted for both strength and beauty of design. His most notable work was Waterloo Bridge, London, opened in 1817, and named after the great battle. He designed the East-India Docks, London, as well as docks at Liverpool, Leith, Dublin, and elsewhere. The well-known Bell Rock Lighthouse, built on a dangerous reef off the coast of Forfarshire, was Rennie's work, as were also numerous canals in various parts of the country.

10. A great expansion of trade followed all these wonderful improvements, not only at home, but in foreign markets, including those of India and America. Thus the wealth of Britain increased enormously. The villages where the cottage industries had been carried on grew into big, smoky towns, and the smaller towns became great cities.

11. This happened mainly in the north of England. Cotton goods were manufactured chiefly in Lancashire, woollens in Yorkshire. These and the adjoining counties contained plenty of coal and iron, the one being required for steam-power, the other for making machinery. The moist climate of Lancashire, too, was especially favourable for the spinning of cotton, the fine threads of which did not break so easily as in a drier area.

12. Labourers and other workers flocked to these districts, which now became more populous and more

active than the fertile south-eastern counties. In Scotland the Clyde basin shared in the same marvellous progress. Lanarkshire grew into a teeming hive of industry, and Glasgow advanced by rapid strides to the position it now holds as the principal city in Scotland, and the second in the British Empire.

3.—The Factory System.

1. Unhappily the wealth produced in Britain by the immense expansion of trade which followed the Industrial Revolution was unequally divided. The causes which enriched certain classes made other classes poorer. In truth it must be said that the Factory System then begun appears to us at this distance of time like a blot on our civilization.

2. Realising the opportunities of making quick fortunes for themselves, the men with money to spare were soon putting up huge factories to hold the machinery required to meet the great increase of trade both at home and abroad. Around these factories clustered the houses of the workers—mean narrow houses in still meaner narrower streets.

3. There were no laws to protect the workers from the selfishness of the masters, many of whom, though making huge profits, kept the workers on the lowest wages they would accept. Child-labour in the factories was another bad feature of the time, children of tender years being employed from early morning until night, for very trifling wages.

District around Southern Pennines showing the Chief Cotton, Woollen, and other Manufacturing Centres.

4. From the chimney-stalks of the factories poured the smoke, which overhung the grimy streets, and prevented the sunshine from breaking through. While the money-lords lived in mansions along the river fronts, and in the fair suburbs, the workers remained huddled in the slums created by the harsh conditions of their employment.

5. As these scandals became more and more observed, they were from time to time lessened by various Factory Acts. One of these, in 1833, made it illegal to employ children under nine years of age, while those between nine and thirteen were not allowed to work more than 9 hours a day. A better Act was passed in 1844, by which the daily employment of children was reduced to $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

6. Since those days the conditions of the workers have been vastly improved by both Factory and Reform Laws. Indeed, the system which obtained a hundred years ago, leaving the workers little better than slaves, is reversed to-day, when the powerful Trade Unions can almost dictate their terms to the employers.

The Comet, the first Clyde Steamship.

4.—Steamships—Further Changes and Inventions.

1. After steam-power had been successfully applied to the machinery of mills and factories, and long before railways were thought about, active-minded men began to apply steam-power to ships as a means of shortening voyages. In those days ships were drawn by sails only, and depended entirely on the winds to bring them to port. In calm weather they might drift idly for days ; in storms they might be driven far from their courses.

2. The very first attempt to propel a vessel by steam-power was made by a Scotsman named Patrick Miller, as early as 1788. The vessel had two hulls, decked over, but with a space between them for the paddle-wheel. She must have looked as curious to observers as the first motor car did to a future generation. Her sailing was confined to Dalswinton Loch in Dumfriesshire, for no one then dreamed of a steamboat that could live in the open sea.

3. Later on a boat named the *Charlotte Dundas*, with a better engine, was built at Grangemouth. Her paddle-

Courtesy of Messrs John Brown & Coy., Clydebank.

The Giant Liner "Queen Mary," ready to be Launched.

wheel was astern, and she plied on the Forth and Clyde Canal. But the first really successful steam vessel was built on the Clyde by **Henry Bell.** He named her *The Comet.* She was forty feet long, and carried passengers for several years between Glasgow and Helensburgh.

4. From these small beginnings, arose the enormous traffic which now crosses the oceans of the world. Great ships, fitted like palaces, convey passengers in multitudes to every land. Again, in 1934, the fame of the Clyde for shipbuilding, begun in those far-off days, was blazoned to the world, when King George and Queen Mary came to the launch of the giant Cunarder No. 534, and named her *Queen Mary,* amid the wild cheering of spectators, numbering hundreds of thousands.

5. **Penny Postage.**—This very important reform, adopted by the government in 1839, brought social changes hardly less great than those due to the inventions and improvements of which we have been reading. Hitherto the postal charges on letters ranged from 2d. to 1/8d., according to distance, and was payable by the receiver. Poor people wrote each other as seldom as possible, and a son or daughter away from home was heard from only at long intervals.

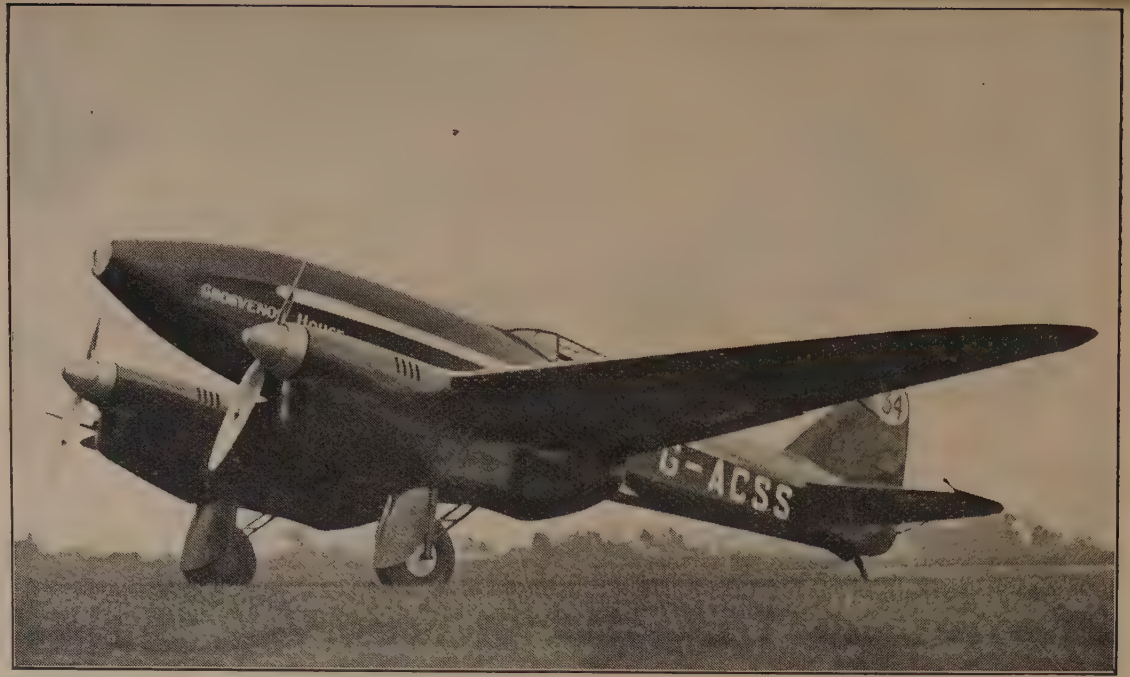
6. With the introduction of penny postage, paid in advance, a great change took place. Everyone began to write letters, and the revenue gradually rose until it exceeded by enormous figures the amounts received under the old system. The marvellous increase in letter writing since 1850 is best realised when it is stated that in 1934 about twenty million letters were handled daily by the Post Office. Of these about a million and a quarter were dealt with in Glasgow, while London's share was over seven millions. In recent years the postage of inland letters was increased to $1\frac{1}{2}$d.

7. **Telegraphs and Telephones.**—Invented by several persons about the same time, the electric telegraph came into use in the early years of Queen Victoria's reign. Through its wires messages can be sent in a moment from one place to another. Not only have the wires been carried between towns and cities, but cables have been laid across the bed of the ocean to bring quick communication between persons living in different parts of the world.

8. In 1877 the **telephone** was invented by A. Graham Bell, a native of Edinburgh. This most useful instrument enables persons far apart to converse just as easily as if they were sitting together in the same room. There are now nearly two and a half million telephones in use in Britain alone, and by getting connection with the International Telephone Exchange in London any person can have speech with a subscriber in any part of the world.

9. Electricity is now employed for countless other purposes, such as lighting and heating, supplying power to machinery of every kind, and driving the trams along the streets of our cities and towns. To bring the electric current to the outlying farms and villages, large generating stations have been built in many parts of the country. From these stations the power is sent along wires, which are carried on high skeleton towers named pylons, to local distributing stations.

10. Among other wonders of the modern age are Marconi's **wireless telegraphy,** and the **aeroplane,** the latter being able to carry through the air passengers, mails, etc.; at speeds impossible on land or sea. The incredible speed at which specially-built planes can be driven, was shown in October, 1934, when, in an air race from England to Melbourne, the leading plane covered the distance of 11,000 miles in 71 hours. England to Australia is a six-weeks' voyage by sea.



London News Agency.

The de Haviland Comet Aeroplane "Grosvenor House," which in October, 1934, won the Air Race from England to Australia.

Richard Cobden.

John Bright.

5.—The Corn Laws—Railways.

1. Corn Laws were taxes put on foreign corn to prevent too much of it from coming into this country. They were in force in England from a very early period. Their purpose was to allow our farmers to get better prices for their corn than they could get if foreign corn were allowed free entry into the home markets.

2. So far as these Laws encouraged our farmers to grow sufficient corn to satisfy the needs of the people, they were wise enough ; for living on an island as we do, the less we depend on foreign corn for our daily bread the better. During the Great War this was vividly brought home to our people, when German submarines were daily sinking shiploads of corn and other foods intended for us. Had not the British Navy been able in the end to sink most of these submarines, we should have been in immediate danger of starvation.

3. But the trouble with the Corn Laws was that under their protection the farmers were charging such high prices for their corn that the wage-earners were scarcely able to

Sir Robert Peel.

purchase all the bread they needed. We have seen how ill-paid were the workers in the factories. Poor pay and dear bread made their lot almost too hard to be borne.

4. Complaints against the Corn Laws grew into violent agitations, in which the farmers and land-owners received a great deal of abuse, for enriching themselves at the expense of the people. The agitation went on for many years, until at last, in 1846, Sir Robert Peel, who was then Prime Minister, became convinced that the Corn Laws must be repealed. Hitherto he had supported these Laws, and his change of view brought him the bitter opposition of the Conservatives. But a potato famine in Ireland decided the matter.

5. Ireland was so poor at this period that the peasantry had to live chiefly on potatoes, and when the crops failed in the "hungry forties," (the years 1845-1848) they were reduced to starvation. Only by abolishing the high

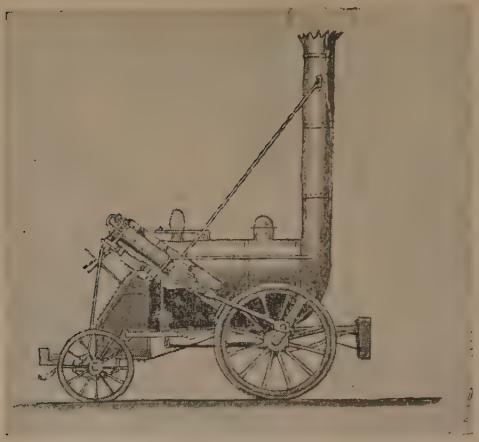
George the Fourth.

duties on foreign corn could enough corn be imported to feed the starving peasantry. Peel therefore had no hesitation in abolishing the Corn Laws (1846). Hundreds of thousands of the Irish people emigrated to America, where their descendants now form an important section of the population. Among other men whose names stand out prominently for their efforts to bring about the repeal of these Laws are John Bright and Richard Cobden.

6. George III. died in 1820, and his eldest son became King as **George IV.** He had been Regent since 1810 on account of his father's mental breakdown. Long a leader of fashion, and commonly called "the First Gentleman in Europe," he was a man of low principles, and his dissipated habits had earned him the dislike of the people.

7. **The First Railway.**—Although in 1769 James Watt had succeeded in supplying steam-power to mills and factories of all kinds, there was no way yet devised by which a steam-engine could be made to move itself from one place to another. A young colliery worker named

Before the era of Railways : the Stage-Coach.



The "Rocket"—The First Steam Engine.

George Stephenson thought it would be a great improvement if the work done by horses in hauling the coal-trucks along the little railways at the pits could be done by a steam-engine on wheels.

8. He set his mind to work, and in 1814 produced a travelling engine which actually did the work. His success suggested to his clever mind that more powerful engines might be made by which towns and cities could be brought into quick communication with each other. For years he planned and worked, until by 1825 he had built a suitable engine, and constructed a railway for it.

9. This railway lay between the towns of Stockton and Darlington, and was opened to the public in that same year. The importance of this invention can hardly be overstated. By connecting the manufacturing centres with the seaports, the new railways which quickly followed gave an immense impulse to industry, and thus vastly helped to increase Britain's wealth and population.

Courtesy of the London Midland & Scottish Railway.

Modern Steam Locomotive, "The Princess Royal."

William the Fourth.

Queen Victoria.

6.—Reforms—Slavery Abolished—The Chartists.

1. An important measure of George IV.'s reign was the **Catholic Emancipation** Act, which gave Roman Catholics the right to sit in Parliament and hold public offices (1829).

2. George IV. died in 1830, and was succeeded by his brother, **William IV.** In 1831 a Reform Bill, one of the most important in our history, was passed by the House of Commons. It was rejected by the House of Lords, but the storm which arose among the people caused the lords to yield, and in 1832 the Bill became law amid great public rejoicings. This **First Reform Act** gave the large centres of population many additional members, and reduced the membership of the small boroughs. An immense number of new voters came into being, but the poorer classes were not yet included, an omission which led to many years of discontent.

3. Another great reform of this reign was the **abolition of slavery** in British Colonies. As early as 1807 the

trading in slaves, that is, the capturing of negroes in Africa, and selling them in America, had been put down, but it was only in 1833 that all those who had already been enslaved in our colonies were made finally free.

4. William IV. died in 1837, and was succeeded by his niece **Victoria,** a granddaughter of George III. She was only in her eighteenth year, but had been carefully and wisely educated for the high station that awaited her. Her long reign was the most prosperous in our history. By the extension of their rights and liberties her subjects became the freest people in the world, and she succeeded in retaining their devotion to the end.

5. **The Chartists.**—Victoria's reign opened gloomily enough. A period of bad trade and bad harvests had fallen on the country, and the working of the Corn Laws bore still more heavily on the poorer classes. The leaders of the workers drew up a **Charter** which demanded among other things the right of every man to vote, and to vote by ballot (that is, secretly); also that members of the House of Commons should be paid, and that they might be chosen from poor as well as rich men. This Charter was disapproved of by the Government, and serious riots arose, which had to be put down by force. But it is interesting to note that almost all of its demands have been approved by later Parliaments and passed into law.

[*A sketch after the picture by Sir David Wilkie, R. A.*

Queen Victoria's First Council.

7.—Britain and China—Manchukuo.

1. **Chinese Wars.**—In 1839 a war broke out with China, known as the First Chinese War. It arose because the Chinese resisted the entry into their ports of British ships carrying opium from India to sell in China. Evil traffic though this was, the profits were so great that Britain went to war both to defend it and to gain the right of entry into Chinese ports. The result was that the Chinese were beaten. Hong-Kong became a British possession, and several other Chinese ports were opened for the first time to British commerce.

2. A second Chinese war broke out in 1856, because of a fancied insult to the British flag. It was soon over, and a treaty was signed by which British missionaries were allowed to enter China. A later disturbance arose (1860) because the Chinese sought to evade the treaty, but it was soon quelled.

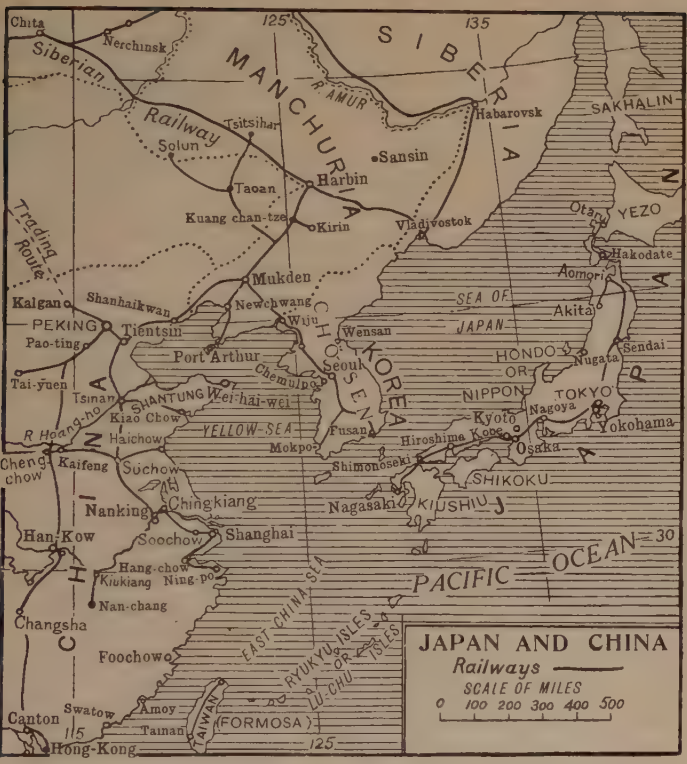
3. In more recent years, several of the Great Powers of Europe, following the British example, sought to secure the possession of lands in China (which they called Spheres of Influence) in order to expand their trade in that vast country. The Chinese resented these foreign invasions, and, in 1900, a revolt named the **Boxer Rising** broke out in Pekin. The foreign embassies were besieged by the Boxers, and one ambassador—the German—was slain. The other members of the Foreign embassies took shelter in the British Legation until relieved by the combined forces of Britain, France, Germany, Russia, United States, and Japan, who fought their way along the Railway between Tientsin and Pekin.

4. With peace restored, all the Powers except Russia withdrew their forces, but Russia still kept a large army in

The International Forces Fighting their way to Pekin.

the fertile province of Manchuria, and even tried to gain a footing in Korea. Though in name an independent country, Korea was under Japanese control, and in these movements of Russia Japan saw danger to her own interests and safety.

5. She promptly asked Russia to retire, but the response was so unsatisfactory that Japan made war against her



(1904). The war lasted over a year, and ended in the complete defeat of Russia, both on land and sea. Hitherto regarded as a remote country, just emerging from medieval conditions; Japan now showed herself to be in many ways as modern as any Western country. Her army and navy were based on European models, as were also her railway, postal, and telegraph systems. In time she was to show that her fast-growing industries were to become a serious rival to Western industries in the world's markets.

6. After her great victory over Russia, Japan took her place among the leading nations of the world. She now pursued her policy of expanding her trade in Manchuria, whose wide expanse proved a useful field for her overflowing population. In spite of China's protests, Japan did not halt until she had gained complete control of Manchuria, which she renamed Manchukuo (pronounced Man-chu-gaw). *Kuo* means Kingdom. In 1934 she purchased from Russia the Manchurian Railways for the payment of ten million pounds, thus making secure her grip of the country. China, long ruled by Emperors, became a Republic in 1912, and her capital was removed from Pekin to Nanking.

8.—The Crimean War—Russia in Asia.

1. In 1848 the people of Paris revolted against the government of their King, Louis Philippe, and drove him from the throne. After much fighting and bloodshed France became a Republic, and Louis Napoleon, a nephew of the great Napoleon, was chosen as its first President. Louis proved to be a very unscrupulous person.

2. After being President for three years he conspired with the Generals of his army to have many leading Frenchmen expelled or imprisoned, and himself made Emperor of the French. This daring act, known as the *coup d'etat* (capture of the state), was wholly successful, and the new Emperor kept the throne for twenty years.

3. One of his promises was to make the name of France feared abroad—to bring "glory" to his people,

as he put it ; and a dispute between Russia and Turkey gave him his opportunity. The dispute was an old one, arising out of the respective rights of the Greek Christians and the Roman Catholics (Latin Christians) to protect the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. Thirsting for "glory," Napoleon entered into the dispute, taking the side of the Catholics against Russia, and war was declared.

Sir Colin Campbell.

4. Long before this, the Russian Empress, Catherine II., had left directions that Russia must some day occupy Constantinople, and the British Government now believed that the Russians would march there if not checked. Once in possession of Constantinople Russian ambition might even threaten our safety in India.

5. Accordingly, in 1854, backed by the French, Britain declared war against Russia. A large army, composed of British and French soldiers, landed at the Crimea with the object of reducing the great fortress of Sebastopol, and crippling Russia's naval power in the Black Sea. The British commander was Lord Raglan.

6. At the river **Alma** the British forces, under the leadership of Sir Colin Campbell, came in first contact with the Russians. A great battle was fought, in which the Russians were defeated and driven back to Sebastopol. Here, by working day and night, they had greatly strengthened their fortifications, before the Allied armies were ready to bombard them.

7. A Russian field-force marched out to attack the Allies, but at **Balaclava** the British, again under the leader-

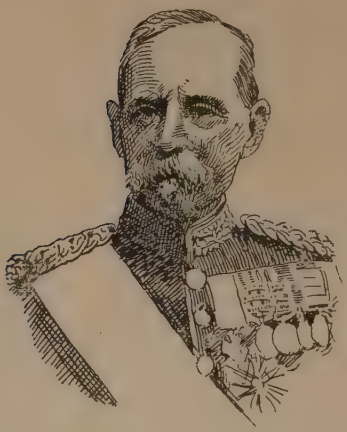
ship of Sir Colin Campbell, drove them back by a brilliant charge of the Heavy Brigade. It was in this battle, too, that the Light Brigade dashed into the heart of the enemy's fire in attempting to carry out an impossible task. This was in October, and in November, during a dense fog, the Russians again came out at **Inkerman** and surrounded a much smaller body of the Allies. Once more they were driven back with heavy losses, and they did not again venture beyond their entrenchments.

8. During the long winter months that followed, Sebastopol still held out, and our soldiers suffered cruelly in the trenches from cold, hunger, and insufficient supplies. It was not until the following September that the great fortress was reduced to ruins, and finally taken. Peace was concluded by the **Treaty of Paris** (1856), by which it was agreed that Sebastopol should not be restored, and that no warships of Russia or any other nation should be free to enter the Black Sea.

9. But Russia and Turkey were not yet finished with each other, and Britain was compelled to keep a watchful eye on the northern Power. In 1877 the cruelties suffered by Christians in Turkey forced Russia to declare war against her. It should be noted that the Turks are Mahometans, and opposed to Christianity. Again Britain became alarmed at Russia's action, and prepared for war, but, fortunately, peace was arranged. Bulgaria, then a Turkish province, and one of the chief sufferers, was made independent, and out of the quarrel Britain obtained a lease of the island of Cyprus.

10. Russian policy in the East still continued to disturb the British people. Angry with Britain for having spoilt their plans in Turkey, the Russians sought to annoy us by entering Afghanistan, a buffer state lying between Russian Central Asia and India. The Amir or ruler of

In the Trenches before Sebastopol.



Lord Roberts.

Afghanistan was more friendly to Russia than to Britain. He refused to let a British agent enter his country until he was forced to do so by the invasion of an army from India. No sooner, however, had the British army withdrawn than the Afghans again began fighting against us, and the British agent was killed.

11. This brought the famous British General, Lord Roberts, into the conflict. He marched to, and occupied Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan, defeating an Afghan army on the way. At Kandahar, 300 miles away, a British force was held up by the Afghans, but was relieved by Lord Roberts, after a heroic march through a region of mountains and deserts.

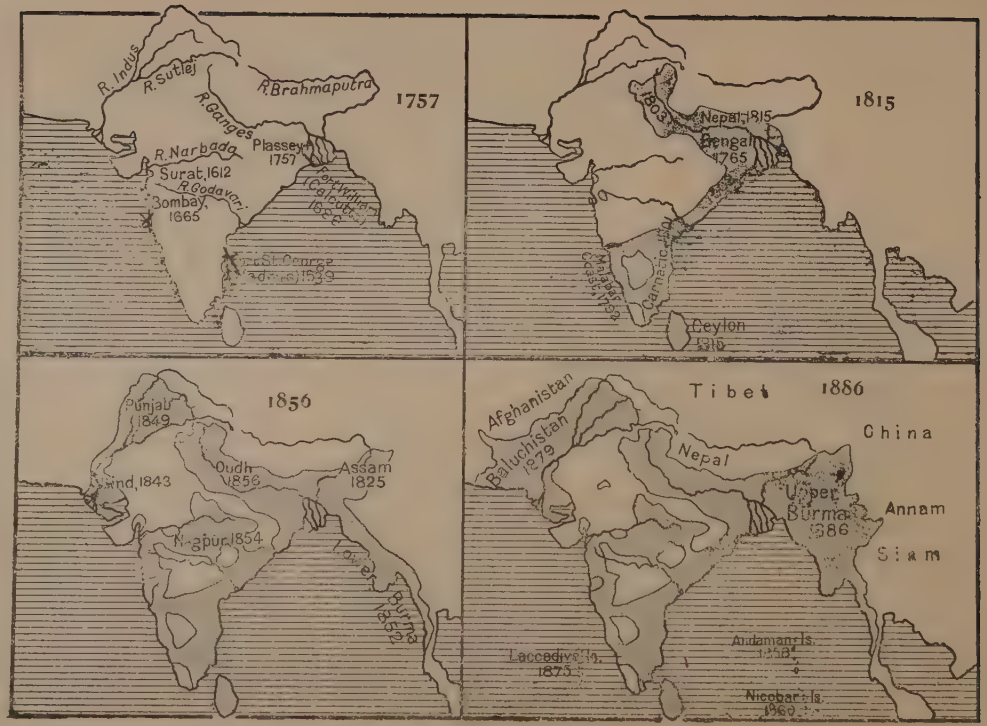
12. We have read in the last chapter how Russian aggression in China received its final check by Japan. In 1907 Russia's relations with Britain had greatly improved, and she was glad to enter into an Alliance with

Britain and France. The immediate effect of this Alliance was that it removed Britain's anxiety as to Russian designs concerning India; and its ultimate effect was that Russia was on the side of the Allies when the Great War broke out in 1914. The later story of Russia will be dealt with in our account of the Great War and after.

9.—India.

1. The East India Company was a large British trading company which, ever since the days of Queen Elizabeth, had held the right to carry on all trade between Britain and India. By the year 1756 it possessed three Indian stations, Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay. In that year a native prince, Surajah Dowlah, who hated the English, invaded their settlement at Calcutta, and captured one hundred and forty-six of the residents. With unparalleled wickedness he thrust them into a dungeon, called the Black Hole, which had only two small openings for air. Their sufferings during the night were beyond endurance, and by next morning all except twenty-three were dead.

2. When the news of this outrage reached Madras steps to avenge it were at once taken, and **Robert Clive,** a young man in the service of the Company, set forth with a small army to punish the criminals. A man of genius and resource, Clive recaptured Calcutta, and in a great battle at **Plassey** completely defeated and dispersed Dowlah's enormous hordes. By this great stroke Clive laid the foundation of British rule in India. For nearly a hundred years after Plassey, British affairs in India remained in the hands of the East India Company. For



Growth of British India.

Robert, Lord Clive.

its protection, it supported a small British force along with a larger body of native soldiers (Sepoys). By the nineteenth century British interests had spread so widely through India that the Company's forces became quite inadequate to protect these interests. Moreover, the native leaders were full of enmity against the British, and wished for nothing so much as to have them cleared out of India.

3. **The Indian Mutiny.**—In 1857 Indian discontent found expression among the Sepoy soldiers. Their army was composed of a mixture of Hindus and Mahometans. To the Hindu the cow is sacred, to the Mahometan the pig is an abomination. When the Sepoys realised that the cartridges they had to use were greased with a mixture of the grease of cattle and pigs, they rose in revolt, and a series of frightful massacres took place at different stations.

Sir H. Havelock.

4. Too late to save all but a remnant of the British residents, British forces were sent to their relief. The rebels had taken possession of Delhi, the ancient capital, and proclaimed a native prince as Emperor. Here the British force could do no more than hold them in check, until the arrival of a fresh army under General Nicholson. Thereafter, by storming the walls, and blowing up the gates, the British force captured the city.

5. Another expedition, under command of Sir Henry Havelock, went to the relief of **Cawnpore** and **Lucknow,** both of which cities were besieged by the rebel hosts. At Cawnpore the garrison was too small to resist, and under the assurance of the native leader, Nana Sahib, that the men would be allowed to leave in safety, they marched out of the town. With unspeakable treachery this miscreant shot them on their way, having already made prisoners of their wives and children. When Havelock arrived, he found that Nana had fled, and that all the British women and children had been murdered.

6. Havelock reached Lucknow in time to save the exhausted garrison, but for two months he was shut inside the Residency by hordes of native soldiers. Great was the joy of the despairing men and women when they heard the distant sound of the pipes, gradually growing louder and louder, and announcing in shrill and joyous notes the approach of a British army. Led by Sir Colin Campbell, this fresh army cut its way through the rebels, and rescued the garrison.

Storming the Walls of Delhi.

Meeting of Sir Colin Campbell and Sir H. Havelock at Relief of Lucknow.

7. After this event the rebels lost ground, and by the autumn of 1858 the mutiny was quelled, The East India Company was abolished, and its troops were taken into the British army. A **Viceroy** was appointed to rule in India in name of the British sovereign, while a Secretary of State was appointed to deal with Indian affairs in London.

8. **Later Indian Events.**—Many of the natives of India have never been satisfied with British rule, although since 1858 Parliament has done much to make that rule more agreeable. British India, it should be remembered, does not include all India. Nearly one-third of India is still ruled by native princes, whose allegiance to the British Empire is no more than formal.

9. In 1876, Lord Beaconsfield, the British Prime Minister, thought it good policy to proclaim Queen Victoria as Empress of India. It was then declared that Britain would not encroach in any way on the territories of the independent princes, nor interfere in their internal affairs farther than to protect them from possible enemies, an assurance which has been faithfully observed. With regard to British India, it was promised among other things that suitably educated natives would be taken into offices and employments which they might be qualified to discharge, and that their religions would not be interfered with.

10. For almost a century the education of the natives has been an important part of British policy, but with very small success, almost seven-eighths of India's immense population being still unable to read or write. Many Indian students now attend British universities, where they qualify for law, medicine, and other professions, including the Indian Civil Service.

11. But India is not yet content with British rule, and from time to time dangerous outbreaks have arisen among

the natives to break the British yoke. A Royal Commission, presided over by Sir John Simon, after giving long consideration to the Indian problem, issued a Report in June, 1930, much of which was approved by Parliament. Some of its provisions were held over for further consideration, and in December of the same year a Conference, called the Round Table Conference, sat in London. It was attended by representatives both of the independent native states and of British India, foremost among the latter being Mr Ghandi, the redoubtable mouthpiece of the discontented natives. But some of the problems which again arose were too difficult to be solved, and the Conference came to nothing.

12. In November, 1934, however, fresh proposals of the utmost importance, approved by the British Government, were laid before Parliament, involving new measures for the self-government of India. By granting a form of Home Rule to the various provinces, these proposals went far beyond any previous measures. With the Governor-General was left certain safeguarding powers, also control of Defence and Foreign Affairs. Whatever the outcome of these proposals may be, it will be carefully watched by all who are interested in the welfare of our Indian Empire.

13. What is certain is that the British people are deeply concerned to lighten the burden of the races of India, and to secure with the help of their native leaders stable and just government for them. The enormous difficulties in the way can be best understood when it is remembered that British India consists of vast populations of different races, scattered over great areas of country, and by no means united either in their religions or their ideas of good government.

10.—The Franco-Prussian War.

1. In the earlier period of Queen Victoria's reign certain of the nations of Europe seeing, not without envy, the great progress the United Kingdom was making both in industry and social reform, thought it would be a very wise thing to bring their own peoples into closer union. Chief of these was Prussia, whose leading statesmen at the time was Otto von Bismarck.

2. Germany consisted of a number of petty states, very loosely united, and governed mostly by Grand Dukes. Prussia, the most northern and largest of these states, was ruled by a King. The Prussians were unlike the other Germans in their natural qualities and character. The Germans were a good-natured, dreamy people, fond of music, poetry, and philosophy. The Prussians, on the other hand, possibly due to the hard climate and the poor soil of their country, were active and industrious, but had little polish or refinement.

Prince Bismarck.

3. Bismarck's first step towards union was to form a Customs-union which allowed goods to pass duty-free between all the German states which would join. But this was not enough, and Bismarck, who was not too scrupulous in his methods, looked about for some further means of bringing the petty states into line.

4. Disturbances in Denmark's provinces of Schleswig and Holstein, which bordered on Prussia, gave him his first opportunity. With the help of Austria, he attacked Denmark, and deprived her of these provinces,

Napoleon III.

promising Austria that she should have Holstein, while Prussia retained Schleswig. Soon regretting his promise, he picked a quarrel with his fellow-spoiler, and in 1866, at Sadowa in Bohemia, so thoroughly defeated her that Austria had to yield up Holstein to Prussia.

4. This bold stroke resulted in the formation of a new German Confederation, consisting of all the German states north of the river Main. Bismarck, however, was not to be satisfied until the Confederation included all the German states *south* of the Main, and he was aware that these states were by no means ready to fall in with his plans.

5. Knowing that Napoleon III., along with Austria, was backing up these states, Bismarck made great preparations to deal out punishment to France. The Prussian army was in perfect condition for war, and its famous general, von Moltke, had planned exactly how his armies might bring Napoleon to book, and pull the French nation down with him.

6. By artful means Bismarck so contrived to excite the anger of France that Napoleon declared war on Prussia. This was just what Bismarck wanted. He knew through his spies that Napoleon, while carrying on a showy government, had failed to keep the French armies at full strength. In July 1870, von Moltke, from different bases, sent three armies into France. At Metz his forces surrounded and captured one large French army; at Wörth the Prussians drove back another; and finally at

William I., first German Emperor.

Sedan they completely crushed French resistance, compelling, at the same time, Napoleon to surrender in person to them.

7. This great victory of German arms resounded through Europe, and brought the southern German states to heel. At their own request they were now taken into the Confederation. France was deprived of her provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and forced to pay the victor a sum of two hundred million pounds. German pride and ambition reached its height when in January 1871, at the great French palace of Versailles, William, King of Prussia, was proclaimed German Emperor.

8. But, alas for the vanity of human pride and ambition ! Just forty-eight years later, as we shall afterwards read, in this same palace, the measure which Prussia thus meted out to France was meted back to herself tenfold, when, after having reduced Europe to ashes in attempting to secure the mastery of the world, the pride of the German Empire was brought low.

11.—South Africa—The Transvaal War.

1. **South Africa.**—The Cape of Good Hope had become ours in 1815, the year of Waterloo, and had steadily grown in importance. Added to its native population were the colonies of the white settlers, British and Dutch. The Dutch did not like British control in Cape Colony, and from time to time they moved northwards, until they finally settled in the countries of the **Transvaal** and the **Orange Free State.** Here, however, the peace of these Dutch farmers—" Boers " they were called—was threatened from a new quarter. A warlike native race, the Zulus, kept them in such continual anxiety that Britain felt compelled to intervene, which, in 1887, she did in her own fashion, by annexing the Transvaal.

2. But the British people at home did not fully approve of Lord Beaconsfield's policy of expanding the British Empire in this summary way, and they returned Gladstone to power in 1880. In the Transvaal the Boers took up arms against the British, and at Majuba Hill thoroughly defeated the small British force still left in the country. An army was dispatched from home to punish the Boers, but Mr Gladstone, believing that the Transvaal had been annexed unjustly, stopped the war and restored independence to the Boers.

3. **The Transvaal War.**—Matters did not end here. In 1885 rich reefs of gold were discovered at Johannesburg in the Transvaal, and miners and financiers rushed from every country to develop the goldfields. Hating these newcomers—" Uitlanders " it called them—the Transvaal Government taxed them severely, and denied them voting rights. These hardships drove the Uitlanders to revolt, in which they were backed up by a band of raiders,

who broke into the Transvaal. This band was headed by Dr Jameson, a member of a Company which had been formed by **Cecil Rhodes** in 1889 to develop a wide expanse of country lying north of the Transvaal, and which was named **Rhodesia** after him. The "Jameson Raid" came to nothing, except that it stirred up much trouble between the two Governments before it was put down and the leaders punished.

Cecil Rhodes.

4. The British Colonial Secretary, **Joseph Chamberlain,** made an appeal to the Transvaal Government to ease the conditions of the Uitlanders, but by this time Mr Kruger, President of the Transvaal Republic, thoroughly distrusted the British, and made preparations to protect his country from them. He was supported by the Orange Free State. Mr Kruger's fears were freshly excited by the arrival at Natal of a British Colonial force from India. All his plans being ready, he declared war.

5. The British immediately (1899) sent out a large army, but before it could arrive the Boers had invaded Natal, and also shut up British forces at places as far apart as Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking. They also held in check another force sent up from Cape Colony. A complete deadlock occurred in the operations, which was only broken by the arrival of a fresh army, under Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener, consisting, not only of home forces, but of troops from Australia, New Zealand, and Canada.

From Photo, Elliott and Fry.

Joseph Chamberlain.

6. The Boer line was broken, and in February, 1900, one Boer army was captured, along with its leader, General Cronje. Thereafter, Lord Roberts marched through the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, finding little resistance. The Boer strength gradually decreased, and in 1902 peace was made, and both the Orange Free State and the Transvaal were added to the British Dominions.

7. The British Government gave large sums to rebuild the Boer homes ruined by the war, and in 1906 the two states were granted self-government. Four years later (1910) they joined with the Cape of Good Hope and Natal to form the Union known as the **Union of South Africa.** In 1915, during the Great War, South African troops, led by General Botha, annexed German South-West Africa.

Southern and Eastern Africa.

8. **South-East and East Africa.**—South-East Africa was opened up in the first half of the nineteenth century by the heroic missionary and explorer, Dr David Livingstone, who devoted his life to the work of exploring and spreading Christian civilization in the dark regions of Central Africa. He discovered Lake Nyasa, and explored the whole course of the river Zambesi. He died in Central Africa while searching for the sources of the river Nile. His discoveries added greatly to our knowledge of these regions. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Dr David Livingstone.

9. Following upon the annexation of Rhodesia in 1889, the extensive regions of Tanganyika and Kenya were acquired in 1918. Thus there is now a continuous belt of territory under British control all the way from South Africa to the Sudan.

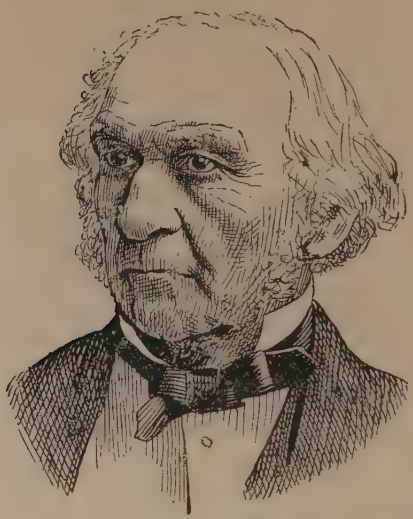
10. In 1926 the Union of South Africa, in common with the other great British Dominions (Canada, Australia, and New Zealand), became a free and independent community, with status equal to the United Kingdom, the only remaining tie being the acknowledgment of the headship of the King.

Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield.

12.—Disraeli and Gladstone—Second Reform Act —School Boards.

1. The middle period of Queen Victoria's reign was distinguished by the careers of two statesmen whose abilities brought them to the highest eminence in directing the affairs of the British Empire. The one was **Benjamin Disraeli,** the other **William Ewart Gladstone.** Gladstone was most successful in home affairs, Disraeli showed his talents best in foreign affairs. The two political parties which between them now directed public matters were the **Liberals** and the **Conservatives.** Gladstone led the former, Disraeli the latter. Socialism had not yet become a real force in politics.

2. These two statesmen were continually placed in political rivalry, each feeling it necessary to oppose most



From Photo, Elliott & Fry.

W. E. Gladstone.

of the proposals of the other. Yet both were men of lofty views, and animated by the highest sense of duty to the state.

3. In 1867 Disraeli, leader of the Conservatives, carried a Reform Bill through the House of Commons, which surprised his political friends and foes equally: his friends because they did not approve of it, his foes because they had not expected so liberal a measure from him. But Disraeli was more astute than his followers: he saw that the people were thinking about their rights more keenly than they had done in past times. The **Second Reform Act** now passed gave a vote to practically every male householder in the towns.

4. A year later Disraeli's government fell, and Gladstone became Prime Minister. His most important measures

were the **Education Act** for England (1870) and for Scotland (1872), by which a School Board was set up in every parish in both countries, and the children compelled to attend school (see page 130).

13.—Britain and Egypt.

1. Back in power in 1874, Disraeli seized the opportunity to purchase for this country almost half the shares of the **Suez Canal.** This Canal had recently been constructed by a French engineer, and it connected the Mediterranean with the Red Sea. By this clever purchase Britain gained control of the shortest sea route to her possessions in the East—India, Burma, Malaya, and others ; also to Australia, New Zealand, and the islands in the Pacific Ocean.

2. Under Turkish rule Egypt had long suffered misrule, and to protect our rights in the Canal Britain was compelled to take a hand in its government, in doing which she was supported by France. This step was regarded as an intrusion by the Egyptians, and in a national rising in 1882, headed by Arabi Pasha, many Europeans were killed. The French withdrew their support, but the British fleet opened fire on Alexandria, and reduced the town to ruins. A British army under Sir Garnet Wolseley also landed, and at Tel-el-Kebir they completely routed Arabi's army.

3. Peace was restored, but in the vast country of the Sudan, which lies south of Egypt, a religious war arose. Led by an impostor who called himself the Mahdi (a deliverer foretold in the Koran), the fierce Arabs set out to make war on all unbelievers. After much fighting, during which the Arabs defeated an Egyptian army,

General Gordon.

Britain sent out General Gordon, famed for his influence over native races in the East, to make peace. Gordon failed, and before British aid could reach him, he was slain by the Arabs in Khartoum (1885). Mr Gladstone, head of the government, was much blamed for not sending out the British troops in time to save him.

4. Twelve years passed before the Sudan was restored to peace. In 1898 an expedition under Lord Kitchener at Omdurman scattered the remnant of the Arab forces, and brought the Egyptian Sudan under British control. Our interests in Egypt still kept the British in occupation, although not always with the will of our government, who realised that the nations of Europe did not approve.

5. Under the wise guidance of Lord Cromer, the British agent, vast improvements took place in the condition of the country. New roads were made, canals were cut, taxes were reduced, and in 1902 the great Aswan

Lord Cromer.

Dam was finished. Here the waters of the Nile are gathered into an enormous lake, ready to be released in dry seasons and spread over the thirsty lands. Other dams farther up the Nile have been erected in recent years, to ensure a plentiful supply of water in the dry seasons.

6. Our wisdom in holding Egypt was proved in 1914, when the Turks took sides with the Germans in the Great War, about which we shall read later on. Our soldiers in Egypt were more than ready to deal with them in their attempts to destroy the Suez Canal, and thus cut off Britain from her Eastern possessions.

7. Egypt ceased to be a British Protectorate in 1922 and, with certain reservations affecting the Suez Canal, became an independent monarchy under King Fuad. The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan remains under British rule.

14.—Ireland.

1. Ireland has ever remained that portion of the United Kingdom which steadily refuses to be reconciled to British dominion. If the other great states of the British Commonwealth have felt a certain pleasure in forming part of the greatest Empire the world has seen, Ireland, if we except Ulster, has never betrayed a similar feeling. On the contrary, ever since the far-off days when Henry II. declared himself Overlord of Ireland, she has continued to demand separation from the United Kingdom.

2. In considering this deep dislike of English rule, we must bear in mind that for centuries Ireland suffered wrongs at the hands of the English. The Irish people were mostly Roman Catholic in religion, and after the Reformation in England the English rulers treated them with great harshness. In Queen Elizabeth's time they suffered many cruelties at the hands of her agents, and under Cromwell these cruelties reached such violence as makes his name still detested by the Irish people.

3. By the end of the eighteenth century the British Government showed a more tolerant spirit than previous Governments had done. They invited the Irish Parliament to unite with the British Parliament, promising that Catholics would be granted the right to sit in the House of Commons, and to hold positions of importance in the State. The Irish Parliament agreed, and the **Union of Parliaments** took place in 1800.

4. The **Catholic Emancipation Act,** as it was named, was not passed, however, until 29 years later (see page 32), and the long delay deepened the distrust and ill-feeling of the Irish people. These and other causes of offence so affected the minds of the Irish leaders that they could think of nothing but separation as the cure for

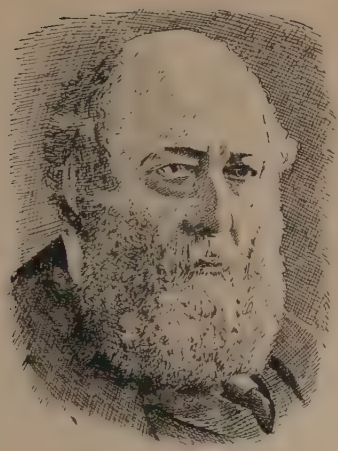
Ireland's ills. From the latter half of the nineteenth century until our own day, Parliament from time to time has passed Land and other laws intended to pacify the Irish, until the bonds which still attach her to the United Kingdom have become very frail indeed, yet she will not be satisfied until the last link is severed.

5. Ireland's demands have long been marked by acts of crime and outrage, with which Parliament has had to deal severely, but without avail. Such acts reached a shocking record in 1882, when Lord Frederick Cavendish, the newly appointed Irish Secretary, and his under-secretary, Mr Burke, were foully murdered in broad daylight in Phoenix Park, Dublin.

6. Strong measures were then taken by Mr Gladstone to put down Irish rebellion, but these did not restore peace. Crimes and outrages continued with ever-growing violence, until at last Mr Gladstone announced a scheme, startling at the time, for a settlement of the Irish Question. This was a proposal to grant Ireland **Home Rule,** which meant a Parliament separate from that of the United Kingdom. He had always been against this before, and his sudden change of policy lost him the support of the Liberal party, which now formed itself into a new party of Liberal Unionists. The opposition of Parliament to Home Rule was so great that Mr Gladstone dissolved it, and appealed to the country for support (1886).

7. He lost the appeal. A Conservative Government was chosen, with **Lord Salisbury** at its head. His nephew, **Arthur J. Balfour,** was made Irish Secretary, and under his firm and steady rule Ireland was reduced to quietness. During the six years of Lord Salisbury's government, however, the British people began to take a more favourable view of Home Rule, and at the general election of 1892 they returned Gladstone to power.

Mr Gladstone introducing the Home Rule Bill.

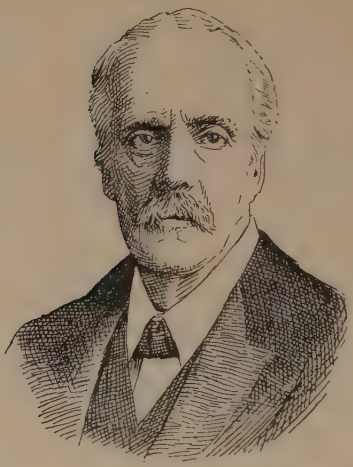


From Photo, Elliott & Fry.

Lord Salisbury.

8. The Home Rule Bill which he now produced was passed by the House of Commons, after long and stormy debates. Mr Gladstone had reached his eighty-third year, but the energy and power he showed in carrying the Bill through the Commons against such powerful opposition won the admiration of friends and foes. All his strength proved to be wasted, for the Bill was rejected by the House of Lords. Gladstone could do no more. He resigned in 1894, and died a few years later.

9. Years of calm followed. Lord Salisbury, who succeeded Gladstone as Prime Minister, resigned in 1902, and Mr Balfour took his place. He passed a Land Purchase Act to enable Irish tenants to become their own landlords. To help them to do so, the Government advanced £12 millions in loans, and became surety for another £100 millions, spread over fifteen years. But the agitation for Home Rule still went on, and in 1912 the Government, now led by **Mr Asquith,** passed a new Home Rule Bill, which was again rejected by the Lords.



From Photo, Elliott & Fry.

Lord Balfour.

10. By this time, however, the people of Ulster, the most northerly province of Ireland, showed unmistakably that they would not be separated from Great Britain, for they dreaded what might happen to them under a Parliament in Dublin. They provided themselves with firearms, and made ready to resist by force any change that should be imposed on them against their wishes. We may understand Ulster's opposition better if we bear in mind that its people are mostly Protestant, while the rest of the Irish people are mostly Roman Catholic in religion.

11. The Government was now placed in a very difficult position. Above all things they did not want to usher in a new era of peace for Ireland at the cost of bloodshed. The effect of their hesitation was only to increase the bitterness between Ulster and the rest of Ireland.

12. Certain observers in Germany were watching the situation closely. It appeared to them that Britain had her hands more than full, and that the moment had come when they might put into action long-planned designs for securing a " place in the Sun," or, in other words, spreading their dominion in Europe and other parts of the world.

13. Before we proceed to tell of the terrible events which now befell Europe, we shall glance back at such matters of importance, other than the Irish question, as were taking place at home.

15.—Britain makes Friends Abroad—Pensions—National Insurance.

1. Queen Victoria died in 1901, and was succeeded by her eldest son, who assumed the title of **Edward the Seventh.** As we have seen, peace was made with the Transvaal in the second year of his reign, when the Boers duly acknowledged him as their King. In the same year (1902) Britain, to the surprise of other nations of Europe, which had not fully realised Japan's advance in Western civilization, entered into Treaty with Japan, chiefly for the purpose of checking Russia's advances in the East.

2. After the Russo-Japanese War, this Alliance was renewed and strengthened. Its importance was fully proved in 1914, when the Great War began, for Japan promptly declared war on Germany, and succeeded in driving her out of both China and her island possessions in the Pacific. The Treaty lapsed in 1922, after a Quadruple Alliance had been signed at Washington between Great Britain, Japan, the United States, and France.

Edward VII.

3. King Edward took a more active part in politics than his mother had done. He paid friendly visits to the principal European rulers, and his powerful influence earned for him the title of "Peacemaker." In 1904 he established cordial relations with France (the *Entente Cordiale*), and entered into similar relations with Russia in 1907 (see page 42). The tremendous importance of these friendly understandings was realised only in 1914, when the Great War broke out.

4. Perhaps the most important Acts of this reign were the **Old Age Pension Act,** and the **Children's Act,** which were passed in 1908. The Pension Act was improved and its provisions widened in later years. By it every insured person over 65 years of age, along with his wife if she has reached this age, is entitled to a weekly pension of 10/-. The Act also provides that every person over 70, whether insured or not, whose whole yearly income is under £50, is entitled to a weekly pension ranging from 1/- to 10/-. Only in cases where the yearly income is under £26, 5/- is the full 10/- granted.

King George the Fifth.

5. By the Children's Act the young are protected from the cruelty and neglect of parents and guardians. Children must not be taken into public houses, nor sold cigarettes. Any young person under 16 seen smoking may have his pockets searched by a policeman or park-officer.

6. King Edward died in 1910, and was succeeded by his son, who took the title of **George the Fifth.** Mr Asquith was now Prime Minister, and in 1912 two important measures were carried into law by his Government. The one was the **National Health Insurance Act,** the other the **Parliament Act.**

7. The Insurance Act provides that all workers who earn less than a certain sum shall pay a small weekly tax, to which their employers must also pay a share. To the fund thus formed the Government also adds a portion. When the worker is ill he is entitled to receive a weekly payment, and free medical attendance and medicine.

8. The Parliament Act provides that any Bill passed

by the Commons and rejected by the Lords may become law without the sanction of the Lords if again passed by the Commons in three successive sessions, and receiving the sanction of the King. Another Act passed at this time granted to members of the House of Commons an annual salary of £400.

16.—The Great War. Part I.

1. In our country's long history she has often had to make war with other European powers to defend her rights, and, while doing so, to free weaker countries from tyranny. In the sixteenth century she had defeated the designs of Philip II. of Spain ; in the seventeenth century she had checked the ambition of Louis XIV. of France ; and in the nineteenth century she had broken the power of Napoleon.

2. Now, after another century had passed, she had again to play the same part against a new tyrant. The German Emperor, William II., a grandson of Queen Victoria, was a ruler of boundless ambition. The German Empire, founded in 1871, had grown wealthy and powerful, and her army was the strongest and readiest force in the world. Like other European Powers, Germany owned colonies in Africa, but the colonies she most wished for were already in possession of other States.

3. Only by successful war, therefore, could she annex any of these. The dangers of her growing ambitions were realised by leading men in Europe, and a friendly understanding existed between Britain, France, and Russia to stand by each other should trouble arise.

4. Only an excuse was wanted to set Germany's great designs in motion. This excuse was provided on June 28,

The Archduke Francis Ferdinand. *Photo, Pietzner.*

1914, when the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, was murdered in Sarajevo, chief town of Bosnia. Bosnia had been annexed by Austria in 1908, much against the will of its people, who preferred union with their own kindred people of Serbia.

5. Knowing that the Serbs also favoured such a union, Austria laid the blame of the murder on Serbia, and sent the Serbian Government a Note ordering it to enquire into the matter without delay. The Note laid down conditions which Austria knew no self-respecting government would accept. Britain, France, and Russia did their best to have the dispute arranged peacefully, and, on their advice, Serbia accepted the harsh proposals of Austria. Here the dispute should have ended, but Germany and Austria, bent on war, found fault with the Serbian reply, and Austria at once bombarded Belgrade, the Serbian capital (July 29, 1914).

The German Emperor William II.

6. Thus began the most dreadful war known to history. On August 1, Germany declared war against Russia, hoping thus to stop her from supporting Serbia, and two days later she declared war on France.

7. As far back as 1839 the independence of Belgium had been agreed upon by Britain, France, Prussia, and other Powers. But this old treaty did not suit Germany's present plans, which were to march quickly through Belgium and reach Paris before the French armies could be ready to stop her. Once in Paris, France was at her feet, and the vast German forces could be wheeled back to smite Russia on her other side, before Russia's slow-

From Photo, Elliott & Fry.

H. H. Asquith, Lord Oxford.

moving armies were ready. Thus the battle-thinkers dreamed; thus they planned to secure Germany's world dominion.

8. Much, however, depended on getting Britain's consent to the passage of the German army through Belgium. To secure this, she approached Britain secretly, promising that on winning the war Germany should take nothing from France except her colonies. This "insolent proposal" to break the treaty, as it was described by Mr Asquith, the Prime Minister, was promptly rejected by our Government, and on August 4, 1914, Britain declared war against Germany.

Lord Kitchener. *Photo, Elliott & Fry.*

17.—The Great War. Part II.

1. Unprepared though Britain was, she came quickly to the help of France. **Lord Kitchener** was appointed Secretary for War, and by August 17 an army of 150,000 men was landed in France by British troopships. Led by Sir John French, they reached the front in time to face the right wing of the Germans at **Mons,** and take part along with the French in slowing down the onrush of the German hosts towards Paris.

2. Before that onrush they were compelled to retreat, resisting all the way, until they reached the river Marne, within thirty miles of Paris. Here they took their stand and, by a miracle, succeeded not only in stopping the

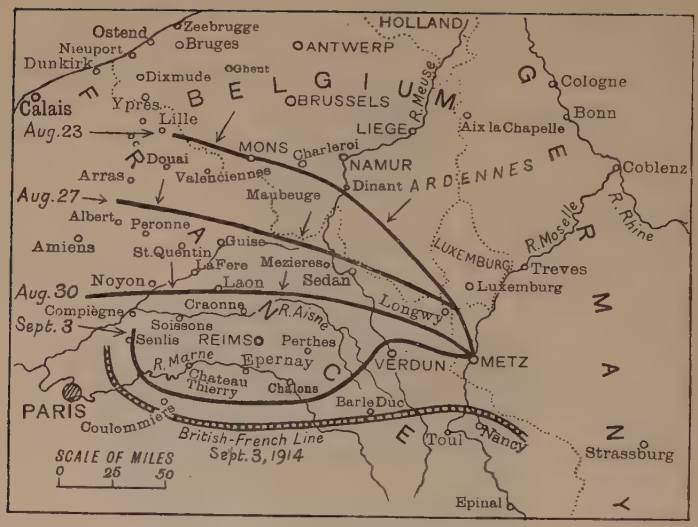
Photo, Elliott & Fry.

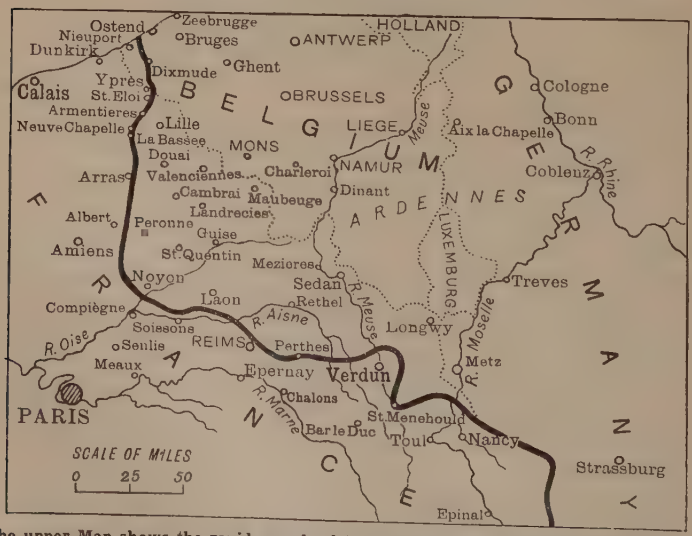
Field-Marshal Viscount French.

Germans' advance, but in forcing them back by the way they had come, until the river Aisne was reached, where the Germans had already prepared trenches.

3. Both sides dug themselves in, and a war of trenches began which lasted four years. Along the Western Front the lines of the opposing forces stretched all the way from the English Channel to the border of Switzerland. Some of the fiercest fighting took place before the town of **Ypres,** where, again and again, the Germans strove to break the British lines, with the object of reaching the Channel ports. Once there they felt the invasion of Britain would be easy. In spite of tremendous losses, the British soldiers stood firm, and German hopes in this direction were never realised.

4. A desperate German attack was made on the French





The upper Map shows the rapid march of the German Army towards Paris, August-September, 1914. The lower Map shows the line of their trenches after their retreat to the river Aisne.

Field-Marshal von Hindenburg.

fortress of **Verdun** in 1916. Month after month the German forces were hurled against this iron fortress, so ably defended by the French. Germany lost hundreds of thousands of her men in this reckless attack, and in the end had to retire defeated.

5. **The Eastern Front.**—Along this front stretched the long line of the Russian army. The men were badly trained, and poorly provided with the necessities of war, yet by the middle of August, 1914, they had invaded East Prussia, and put its inhabitants to flight. The German Command was given to Marshal Hindenburg, a retired soldier, who had made a long study of the marshy plains which stretch beyond Prussia's eastern borders. Hindenburg laid his plans carefully, and when he had got the Russians into the bogs and marshes of **Tannenberg** he had

them delivered into his hands. Completely defeating them, he captured no fewer than 80,000 prisoners.

6. This great defeat of the Russians made it easy for the Germans to drive them out of East Prussia and Poland. A War of trenches then began, as on the Western Front, but the fighting was by fits and starts, and a sort of friendship arose between the combatants. The simple Russians were befooled by the Germans, who, pretending to be sorry for their evil plight in the trenches, advised them to secure an early peace by deserting and going back to their homes. This cunning advice helped, in 1917, to bring on the Russian Revolution, which ended the War on the Eastern Front, and enabled Germany to transfer her troops to the West, where her greatest difficulties lay.

18.—The Great War. Part III.

1. The slow progress of the Allied armies against the enemy during the first two years of the War led to a change in the Government, and in December, 1916, **Mr Lloyd George** was made Prime Minister. Under his direction of affairs, the War was carried on with new vigour, but all the fresh efforts of the Allies could not break through the German line. When, however, in April, 1917, America, furious at the submarine attacks on her ships, decided to join the Allies, the outlook changed, and victory appeared certain.

2. **The War at Sea.**—Meantime the War at sea was being waged with vigour. German submarines were making havoc among British and Neutral shipping, in the desperate hope of starving the British people into submission. One of their most dreadful crimes on the sea

David Lloyd George. *From Photo, Elliott & Fry.*

was the sinking of the **Lusitania** as she was proceeding home from America. This great ship was torpedoed off the Irish coast, and sunk with nearly 1200 of her passengers and crew. The whole world was shocked at the awful deed.

3. German cruisers had been scouring the seas, doing the same deadly work as the submarines. One of these cruisers, the *Emden*, eluded capture for months, but was finally caught and destroyed by the Australian cruiser *Sydney*, off Cocos Islands. Other five German warships, which had sunk three of our cruisers off the coast of Chile, were surrounded by a British squadron near the Falkland Islands, and sent to the bottom (December 1914).

4. Only once did the German navy venture into the North Sea from its safe anchorage in the Kiel Canal.

Photo, Russell, Southsea.

Admiral Jellicoe, who commanded the British Fleet at Jutland.

Off the coast of **Jutland** it was met by the British Fleet, and a fierce battle was fought in which both sides shared heavy losses in men and ships (May, 1916). Victory was uncertain, but after returning to the shelter of their canal the German ships did not come out again, and our Fleet remained in undisputed possession of the seas.

5. **Japan.**—In the far east Japan joined early in the War. She compelled the German colony in China to surrender, and her Fleet assisted our Australian and New Zealand forces in taking over all the German islands and other possessions in the Pacific Ocean.

6. **Italy.**—Although a member of the Triple Alliance along with Germany and Austria (formed in 1882), Italy refused to join forces with them in the War, on the ground that it was not a war of defence. Moreover, she did not like to see Austrian troops in the Balkan Peninsula. She

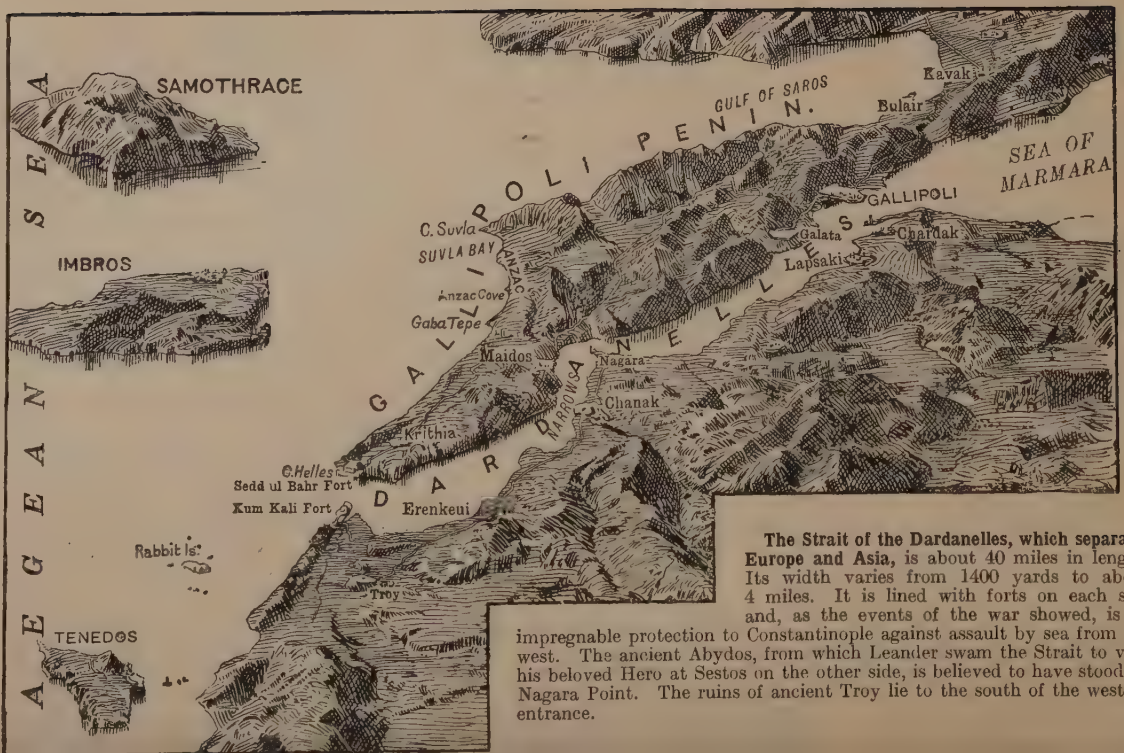
took the side of the Allies, and attacked Austria to recover the Italian-speaking territory on Italy's northern border (the Trentino), which was held by Austria. Helped by the mountain barriers between herself and Italy, Austria, hard pressed though she was, kept the Italian armies at bay.

7. Another country which joined the Allies was **Rumania,** but she proved unable to resist the Germans, and only when the War was ended came her release and reward.

8. **Turkey** took the German side early in the War, and in February, 1915, tried to wreck the Suez Canal, in order to cut off our communications with our Eastern forces. The desert which stretches between Palestine and Egypt proved a natural defence of the highest value. Not even with German aid could the Turks overcome the difficulties of a waterless journey of several days. By the time they reached the Canal they were easily dispersed. Turkey, however, was successful in cutting off all Black Sea communication between Russia and her Allies. Strengthened by German engineers, the fortresses of the Dardanelles were able to resist all the attacks of our warships.

9. In April, 1915, a strong force of British and Colonial troops (the ANZACS*) was landed at the Gallipoli Peninsula, to force a way to Constantinople (now Istanbul), and thus open up the Black Sea. Unluckily our men were outnumbered by the Turks, who were entrenched on the heights above the landing beaches. All our men's efforts proved useless and, after suffering great loss, they were withdrawn.

*ANZAC, initials of Australian and New Zealand Army Corps.



The Strait of the Dardanelles, which separates Europe and Asia, is about 40 miles in length. Its width varies from 1400 yards to about 4 miles. It is lined with forts on each side and, as the events of the war showed, is an impregnable protection to Constantinople against assault by sea from the west. The ancient Abydos, from which Leander swam the Strait to visit his beloved Hero at Sestos on the other side, is believed to have stood on Nagara Point. The ruins of ancient Troy lie to the south of the western entrance.

19.—The Great War. Part IV.

1. **Germany Defeated.**—Beaten on the seas, and baffled in the early hope of quick conquests in France and Russia, Germany's high tide of ambition and pride was fast ebbing away. The prospect of America's entry into the War on the side of the Allies finally dashed her high hopes of world conquest.

2. At home her people were nearing starvation point, signs of mutiny were showing in her navy, and her submarine crews were refusing to embark on undersea trips from which they were never likely to return. Realising the dangers both from revolution at home and gathering enemies outside, the war-lords prepared a last desperate attack on the Western Front.

3. Well knowing it was now or never with them, they launched their attack in March 1918, and, by a fearful sacrifice of life, forced the Allies back from most of the ground gained in earlier battles. Appealed to by Sir Douglas Haig, the British Commander, our soldiers found new courage, and by July the tide had turned, and the Germans were in full retreat.

4. All was now over with German resistance. Hopelessly beaten, and broken in spirit, her soldiers retired in disorder, making no effort to check the triumphant advance of the Allies. The Kaiser fled to Holland, and the weary war-lords were only too thankful to accept the severe terms of an **Armistice,** which saved a revolution among their people.

5. Early in 1919 a **Peace Conference** met at Versailles, near Paris, to settle the world-wide disorder created by the War. One of the first things it did was to form a **League of Nations,** the high purpose of which was to put an end

Topical Press Agency.

The Peace Conference at Versailles. Signing the Peace Treaty.

The various shaded Territories show the Area of the former Empire of Austria-Hungary, and the Mixed Races which made it up.

to all wars. Any serious dispute between nations was to be laid before a Council of the League for settlement if possible without resort to arms. Six months were to be allowed for decision, with three more months for further consideration if the decision was not accepted.

6. The Peace Conference made great changes in the map of Europe. Large areas of Germany and Austria-Hungary were taken from them, some portions turned into new States, others added to existing States. A study of the race-map of the old "ramshackle" Austrian Empire will show how some of these changes were made.

7. For example, a new State named Czecho-Slovakia was formed from three northern provinces of Austria-Hungary; another northern province went to Poland; Transylvania in the south-east was given to Rumania; while the Slavs of Croatia, Bosnia, Serbia, and other

Alsace, Lorraine, and the Saar.

provinces were united into the new State of Yugo-Slavia.

8. This last union proved to be a tragic error, for the Croats and Serbians disliked each other with an intensity which reached its height when, in October, 1934, their King, Alexander, was murdered by a Croat assassin at Marseilles. Austria and Hungary, now separate States, and deprived by the Peace Conference of their richest and most valuable provinces, were left mere remnants of what they once had been.

9. Germany was divided into two portions by a "corridor" to allow Poland free access to the Baltic Sea. Along the Rhine her valuable coal and iron fields in the Saar region, just north of Lorraine, along with Alsace and Lorraine (taken from France in 1871) were yielded to France; the Saar, according to the wish of its people, was either to go back to Germany in 1935, or to be left in

Central Europe after the Peace Conference. The shaded portions show the territories taken from Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.

control of the League of Nations.* Germany's Colonies in all parts of the world were taken from her. She was also required to pay immense sums of money to the Allies for their unparalleled losses in the War.

10. The anger and indignation of the Allied nations against Germany prevented them from foreseeing what they saw later, that by depriving Germany of her most valuable possessions, both at home and abroad, they were taking away her ability to carry on her former great trade and manufactures. How could she possibly pay the immense sums demanded by the Allies if they so greatly restricted her power to earn them ?

11. In time the Allies came to understand the position, and they freed Germany from most of her debts. But German discontent at the humiliation of the Versailles Treaty increased with the passing of the years, and formed a danger to the peace of Europe. Her large population, so tightly packed in her reduced area, called for expansion abroad, and she considered it absolutely necessary that, at the very least, some of her Colonies should be restored.

12. A notable feature of the Peace Conference was that the representatives of the great British Colonies—South Africa, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand—sitting side by side with the British representatives, voted on all matters as free, separate nations, independently of each other. Thus was shown that the bonds which unite the British Empire are not treaties and such similar obligations, but the finer ties of kindred, speech, and common aims and hopes in the future.

* In January 1935 the people of the Saar, by an overwhelming vote, decided to go back to Germany.

20.—Ireland.

1. The Irish nation, which caused so much trouble before the War, did not cease to add to our difficulties during the great struggle with Germany. In chapter 14 we saw that in 1912 a new Home Rule Bill had been prepared which roused violent opposition in Ulster.

2. The new Act came into force in 1919, but it was no better liked by the Irish people south of Ulster than by the Protestants in the north. The southern party, the Sinn Feiners, wanted nothing less than a Republic, and a Republic which would include the whole of Ireland.

3. In 1916, while the War was at its height, the British Government discovered that the Sinn Feiners were carrying on a treasonable correspondence with the Germans, and were actually importing arms from them. A pretended Norwegian vessel laden with arms and ammunition was stopped by a British warship off the coast of Kerry. To prevent capture she was immediately scuttled by her crew, who took to the boats, but were promptly taken prisoners. Their leader, a pro-German named Sir Roger Casement, was tried for treason and hanged. A rising of Sinn Feiners* at the same time in Dublin was put down after great loss of life.

4. Recognising that it was a hopeless task to bring Ulster under the rule of an Irish Paliament, the British Government passed a new Act in 1920 which gave *two* Parliaments to Ireland : one for the Home Rulers, to sit in Dublin, and another for Ulster, to sit in Belfast, and to be in union with the British Parliament.

5. This Act did not, of course, satisfy the Sinn Fein demands. Again they broke out in rebellion, and once

* Sinn Fein means *Ourselves only.*

more Southern Ireland was disgraced by scenes of outrage and bloodshed. The British Government was in a difficulty. To allow Ireland to become a Republic was not practicable. Once free from British rule, the anti-British feeling in Ireland might be easily worked upon by a foreign enemy, to our great peril.

6. The Government made another effort. It now offered (1922) to place the new Irish Free State on the same plane of government as the other States of the British Commonwealth ; that is, make it a free and independent nation, except in so far as to acknowledge the headship of the King, in common with Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand. After some delay this offer was accepted, and an Agreement, or Treaty, was signed by representatives of both countries.

7. From 1922 to 1931 the Free State enjoyed prosperity under its new Parliament, with Mr Cosgrave as Premier, although Mr de Valera, in opposition, had never ceased to agitate for a Republic. In 1931 a new election put Mr de Valera at the head of the Free State Government, and now he lost no opportunity that might help his plan to cut the British connection.

8. His first step was to abolish the Oath of Allegiance to the King. His next was to refuse payment to Britain of the interest on money lent to Ireland long before, and which had always been paid until now. In the House of Commons Mr Thomas, the Colonial Secretary, pointed out that the Oath was a most important part of the Treaty, and that the agreement to pay the interest money was binding " in law and in honour."

9. To have the question of the payments settled one way or the other, the British Government wanted to submit it to the judgment of a body of men drawn from our dominions, but Mr de Valera would not agree. In

Central Press Photos.

Eamon de Valera.

July, 1932, therefore, the House of Commons passed an Act which put a tariff of 20 per cent. on Irish produce, this being the least troublesome way of securing the payments which Mr de Valera refused to make.

21.—Causes of Unemployment.

1. From the subject of Ireland and her discontents, we gladly turn to other events of importance which arose after the War. That long nightmare ended, the British people were in high hopes that their troubles were now over. Great schemes were considered to restore to the country the trade lost by the war, and thus reduce the

evil of unemployment, so greatly increased by the home-coming of the soldiers.

2. But these hopes gradually faded. It was soon realised that the high place in industry and commerce which Britain had occupied before the War had been lost in the years when all her strength in men and money was employed against Germany. The nations which before the War had bought millions of tons of her coal, and products of iron, cotton, wool, and countless other things, found themselves cut off from these supplies while the War lasted.

3. These nations were compelled to look nearer home for their needs. They set up machinery of their own, and began to make for themselves most of the things which they had imported before the War, while those of them which had coal and iron fields worth working proceeded to make full use of them.

4. Other causes of Britain's declining trade were the heavy taxation of her people to pay the cost of the War, and the higher wages paid to her workers than most other manufacturing countries paid. The different ways of living in Japan, for example, enables that country to work her industries at a much less cost in wages, without discomfort to her workers, than is possible in this country, where the standards of living and the habits of the people are so different. Japan has thus been able to undersell us in every part of the world. To a less extent it has been the same with other countries.

5. During the War both the railways and the coal mines had been in charge of the Government, and after the War was over the general unrest among the workers found chief expression among the miners and the railwaymen. In 1921 the miners ceased to work for three months, and only restarted when the Government voted them a large sum

of money to add to their wages. But the unrest did not cease. The Trade Unions wanted the mines and railways to be taken over by the Government from the present owners, or, better still, to be handed to the workers, who would themselves undertake the management of them.

6. **The Great Strike.**—In 1926 the General Council of the Trade Unions organised the greatest strike on record. It began with the miners, and spread to the railwaymen, the dock labourers, the iron and steel workers, shipbuilders, engineers, printers and others. The Unions believed that by thus bringing the country's affairs to a standstill they could enforce their demands. The event proved otherwise.

7. The Government was prepared for the emergency, and volunteers came forward in thousands to keep the country's business going. Young men left their colleges and their offices to become for the time being dock labourers, tramway, bus, and taxi drivers, railway porters, miners, and to help in hundreds of other ways to defeat the plans of the strikers.

8. These latter now began to see that they had not chosen the best way to get the nation on their side. After ten days idleness the strike was called off by the Union leaders, the miners alone remaining out for several months. It was a disastrous strike for the Country's home and foreign trade. This was fully realised by hundreds of thousands of the strikers when, on returning to work, they found there was no work for them. The cost of the strike to the nation was estimated at £150 millions, the loss to the miners themselves being over £60 millions.

Mr Stanley Baldwin, Prime Minister 1923 (8 months); again Prime Minister 1924–1929.

Photos, Elliott & Fry.

Mr Ramsay Macdonald, Prime Minister 1924 (Jan.–Nov.) again Prime Minister June, 1929.

22.—A National Crisis.

1. For the second time since the War, a Labour Government came into power in 1929. **Mr Ramsay MacDonald** was again chosen as Prime Minister. Unemployment was now at its highest figure, and the necessity of keeping so many idle men and their families from starvation proved too heavy a drain on the national income.

2. The Government was spending more than it was earning, and unless this were stopped, it could only lead to bankruptcy. What added to the danger was that foreign countries which had invested their money in Britain, believing it to be the safest banking country in the world,

now withdrew their money in alarm, thus making it more difficult for Britain to balance her accounts.

3. By July, 1931, the position had become so unsafe that immediate action had to be taken. With the help of the King, a new Cabinet was formed, consisting of men whose first thought was to restore the country's credit. These men were chosen from the different Parties—Conservative, Liberal and Labour—Mr MacDonald being retained as Prime Minister. The new combination was named the **National Government,** and it at once set to work to cut down the spendings of the Labour Government, and to impose fresh taxes on the long-suffering taxpayer.

4. By these means the Government succeeded in balancing the nation's accounts, and in largely restoring the confidence of foreign nations in British credit. A General Election which followed in October brought great defeat to the Labourists, and the return of a strong National Government.

5. In 1935 the Government, in conjunction with the Local Authorities, entered into a great scheme for abolishing the slum properties throughout the country. These slums were ever a blot on our great cities, darkening and degrading the lives of the poor. The unfortunate dwellers in them suffered all the dangers of overcrowding, lack of pure air, preventable diseases, and shortened lives. This clearance, and the provision of better houses must have enormous effect in producing a strong and healthy people. The Government hoped that within five years enough good houses would be provided to reduce the slums to a very small proportion.

23.—Free Trade *versus* Protection.

1. **Free Trade** means a system of trading between nations by which a country imports free of taxation the productions of other countries. To work fairly it should, of course, be Free Trade all round—that is, between all countries which trade with each other. **Protection** means the opposite. It seeks to *protect* the home producers of goods from what these producers call the unfair competition of foreign goods, and it puts a tax on all such imports.

2. When the Corn Laws were abolished in 1846, and Free Trade was established in Britain, our Free Traders expected that other countries would follow the British example. They did not do so, however, and British Free Trade remained a one-sided affair. Yet it cannot be denied that under Free Trade the prosperity of our country was immensely greater than that of Protectionist countries. This was very clearly shown in the Great War, when our Allies depended on British money to keep them going after their own funds were exhausted.

3. Some of the arguments used for and against Free Trade may be here stated. Free Traders have no doubt that it is the best possible system for our country. If we except **Coal,** Britain has few natural resources. We must depend on other countries for most of our raw materials, such as iron, copper, tin, rubber, cotton, etc. To tax the imports of these would be only to increase the difficulties of our large manufacturers, ironfounders, shipbuilders, etc., while to tax imported *goods*, by which we mean articles already made, would be to increase prices to the public. The same would happen with our food supplies, for which we so largely depend on foreign

countries. The free entry of foreign goods keeps down prices, and makes living cheaper.

4. On the other hand, the Protectionist says that if our industries are protected from the entry of low-priced foreign goods, they will produce higher profits, which will yield better wages to the workers, and thus increase the circulation of money, to the benefit of all. And they especially warn us to use every means to increase the cultivation of our food supplies at home, and not depend so much on foreign supplies, which would be cut off during war, and thus leave our people to face starvation. They do not propose to tax raw materials ; but it is not easy to decide what to include in raw materials, there being different views among traders on the subject.

5. Many thoughtful persons, who were Free Traders before the War, have begun to doubt if, since the War, the old one-sided Free Trade is still good for this country. Other nations have been more and more shutting out British trade by high tariffs, while we were still allowing free entry of their goods.

6. In 1923, **Mr Baldwin** drew public attention to the need of protecting certain of our industries from the free competition of foreigners, but the people were not yet prepared for Tariff Reform. But some years later the National Government was enabled to put duties or tariffs on certain classes of imported articles, which proved satisfactory in so far as it brought a welcome addition to the country's revenue. How far these beginnings of Protection may be extended with benefit to the people, only time can tell.

CENTRAL EUROPE
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300
ATLANTIC OCEAN
IRELAND
IRISH SEA
Leeds
Liverpool
Birmingham
ENGLAND
LONDON
ST. GEORGE'S CHANNEL
Land's End
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Strait of Dover
Calais
Havre
Brest
PARIS
R. Seine
Loire
BAY OF BISCAY
FRANCE
Bordeaux
R. Garonne
Lyons
Rhone
Oporto
R. Douro
R. Ebro
MADRID
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
Tagus
LISBON
Toledo
Valencia
R. Guadiana
Seville
Guadalquiver
Granada
Cadiz
Malaga
Gibraltar
Barcelona
Balearic Is.
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Marseilles
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Turin
Milan
Genoa
R. Po
Venice
ITALY
Florence
ROME
Naples
SICILY
ADRIATIC SEA
ALBANIA
GREECE
Athens
C. Matapan
DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
NORTH SEA
Hamburg
Stettin
Danzig
R. Vistula
Bremen
Elbe
Hanover
BERLIN
WARSAW
POLAND
RUSSIA
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
Cologne
R. Rhine
GERMANY
Leipzig
Dresden
Oder
Prague
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA
CARPATHIAN MTS.
Strasbourg
R. Danube
VIENNA
Budapest
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
RUMANIA
Basle
SWITZERLAND
ALPS
Drave
Save
Belgrade
Bucharest
R. Danube
Varna
BLACK SEA
YUGO-SLAVIA
Sofia
BULGARIA

24.—A Glance at Post-War Europe. Part I.

By the end of the Great War most of the countries of Europe which had taken part in it found themselves in a condition bordering on collapse. All their wealth and resources, all the money they had been able to borrow, and, most terrible of all, the flower of their manhood had been sacrificed on the battlefields. Nothing was left for them now but to pick up the remnants of their broken fortunes, and try to bring back a little of the prosperity of the happier days before the War.

Germany was on the verge of starvation when the War ended, and ready to fall under the dominion of the Communists, who were spreading their doctrines in all parts of the country. But the Communists confined their energies to speech-making, and proved unable to seize the reins of government. After much rioting and bloodshed in the streets of Berlin and other cities, the military leaders and police took control, and Germany became a Republic.

Heavily crippled by the enormous sums she had to pay the Allies as Reparations, and by the loss of some of her best industrial areas, Germany soon found herself in a state of bankruptcy. The value of the German mark, which before the War had been equal to a shilling, was now almost nothing. This meant that all the savings of the people were wiped away, and famine stared them in the face.

Realising the distress, Britain and America lent money to restore German industries, and this led to improvement, but the War debts weighed over everyone, and the people remained in a state bordering on despair.

E.N.A.

Adolf Hitler.

They were in dire need of a leader, and a leader appeared in the person of Adolf Hitler, a native of Austria. Hitler founded a new party named the Nazi party (pronounced *Natzi*), whose teachings attracted the youth of Germany so powerfully that Nazism soon became the chief political force in the country. It taught that the German race was superior to all other races, and that Germany must be made the home of German people only. Such foreigners as Poles, Slavs, and Jews were to be deprived of citizenship, and expelled from the country.

In 1932 Hitler was made Chancellor, and the Nazi influence was supreme. It appears to be a tyranny such as any free people, like the British, could not imagine possible. The Nazis suffer no opposition to their rule.

Critics, whether private citizens or the newspapers, are put down by force. Many Germans holding prominent positions in the army and other public services were put to death in June, 1934, as opponents of the Nazi cause. But Hitler's star continued to rise, and on President Hindenburg's death in September, 1934, he was made President for life. All the Ministers of State were sworn to support him, and his power became greater than that of any monarch.

France.—The wide expanse of French soil over which the worst battles raged had been ruined by the War, but after the peace the French people devoted themselves to the work of restoring the wasted lands and ruined towns, and in rebuilding the industries which had been destroyed. Remembering how harshly Germany had treated her in 1871 (see page 53), France was in no mood now to let Germany off easily. She stood out against the wishes of Britain and America to lighten Germany's burdens, believing that a strong Germany would again be dangerous. She even took steps to make herself secure against future German aggression by getting the promise of Britain and several of the new states of Europe to come to her aid in such an event.

A clever and industrious people, the French were not long in recovering from the worst losses of the war. France has rich coal and iron fields, and her soil is extremely productive, yielding great crops of wheat, fruit, and vegetables. Her vineyards are the finest in the world. In addition to all her natural wealth, France possesses vast territories in Northern Africa, the resources of which are of immense value, and no doubt were an irresistible temptation to the German war-lords when they prepared to crush France in 1914.

Austria-Hungary.—Before the Great War broke out, the area of Austria-Hungary was over 240,000 square miles. After the War, when her subject races had been raised into independent nations, Austria was reduced in area to about 30,000 square miles, and Hungary to 36,000 square miles. Formerly the city of Fiume on the Adriatic Sea was Austria's seaport, but after the War this port was given to Italy, and Austria has now no direct outlet to the sea. Her only waterways are her rivers—chiefly the Danube—and her canals, and her water-borne traffic must pass through other countries before it can reach the sea.

Austria is now a very small country, with little trade to support a poverty-stricken people. Britain and Germany have granted her loans to enable her to rebuild her industries, but, shorn of her richest provinces, Austria remains one of the poorest countries of Europe. Her former ally, **Hungary,** has been similarly stricken. Deprived of provinces, north, east, and south, she has little left beyond her agriculture. Fortunately for her, the Plain of Hungary is one of the richest wheat areas in Europe.

25.—A Glance at Post-War Europe. Part II.

Poland.—At one time Poland was a large country. Its neighbours were Russia on the east, Germany on the west, and Austria on the south. But these greedy neighbours, knowing the weakness of its government, were easily tempted to lay hands on Poland. From time to time they annexed portions of its territory, until by the end of the eighteenth century nothing was left of Poland but the name.

After the Great War the stolen lands were recovered from the spoilers, and Poland once again appeared on the map of Europe as an independent country. Russia, the biggest robber, was far from pleased to have to restore the Polish lands, and for a time her troops gave much trouble to Poland. But the Poles had an able soldier named Pilsudski, who put the Russians to flight, and thereafter peace was made between the two countries.

To enable Poland to develop foreign trade by the port of Dantzig on the Baltic Sea, a strip of German country was opened which cut off East Prussia from the rest of Germany. Here, on the Baltic shore, and just north of Dantzig, Poland has built another great harbour named Gydnia.

Stock-raising and agriculture are important industries, and the transference of the province of Galicia from Austria gave Poland a region rich in coal, oil, and other minerals. Warsaw, the capital, is a beautiful city. It stands on the river Vistula, and has a population of over a million.

Czecho-Slovakia is a new State formed by the union of the rich northern provinces of Bohemia, Moravia, and Slovakia, which formerly belonged to Austria. The natural wealth of these divisions is enormous. Agriculture is a leading industry, and there are forest areas of immense value. Coal and iron-mining are important occupations, and there are valuable deposits of silver, gold, lead, and other minerals. The mineral springs in all parts of the country bring large numbers of visitors every year. An active and industrious population, and rich natural resources, have combined to make Czecho-Slovakia one of the most prosperous states in Europe.

E.N.A.

Benito Mussolini.

Italy, a Fascist State.—The *Fasces* were a bundle of rods tied around an axe, and carried as a badge of authority in ancient Roman processions. Fascism is the new form of government which Signor Mussolini established in Italy after the Great War. It is a form of tyranny, but is less harsh than the German tyranny, inasmuch as it does not put its opponents to death. It differs from the tyrannies of old, because it takes into consideration the needs of the people, to ensure peace and contentment among them. But it is the rule of a **Dictator,** who believes that he understands the needs of the nation better than the people themselves do.

Under this Dictatorship the people of Italy are no

more free than the Germans are. They must not criticise the acts of the Government, nor must their newspapers print any news or opinions which might shake the people's trust in the Government. To ensure the future success of Fascism, the Italian children, from an early age, are taught its principles. They are also drilled like little soldiers, and even made to take an oath to uphold and defend it.

Yugo-Slavia.—This was another of the new States created by the Peace Conference after the War. It consists of the Kingdom of Serbia and various provinces east of the Adriatic Sea which formerly belonged to Austria, the largest of which are Croatia, Bosnia, and Slavonia. The formation of this new Kingdom was one of the least successful of the arrangements of the Conference, for the bitterness which exists between the people of Croatia and the Serbians prevented the former from accepting the rule of Alexander, the Serbian King. So acute was this bitterness that plots were formed against the King's life, and in September, 1934, he and the French Foreign Minister were foully shot at Marseilles by a Croatian assassin. (See page 88).

Yugo-Slavia is a mountainous country. The principal industries are agriculture and stock-raising, but the natural resources of the country include coal and iron deposits. It has a long sea-coast on the Adriatic Sea.

Russia.—When the Bolsheviks came into power in Russia in 1917, and made peace with Germany, Russia lost Poland, Finland, and other four provinces bordering on the Baltic Sea, all of which became separate Republics. The Bolshevik leaders, Lenin and Trotsky, overturned the rule of the Czar Nicholas II., and put both him and his family to death in circumstances of the greatest cruelty.

From Photo, E.N.A.

Lenin.

They also killed great numbers of Russians considered dangerous to the success of the Bolshevik Government. Russia was made a Communist State, and named the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (U.S.S.R.). All class distinctions were abolished, and the whole population was placed on a footing of equality.

Lenin died in 1924, and his successor, Stalin, organised a "Five Year's Plan" by which all the industries of Russia were to be placed on a level higher than those of any other country. The Plan worked wonders. Every one was put to some kind of occupation. Factories were built, and workers placed in them to learn, each in his department, the work of producing the things most needed by the nation—machinery of all kinds, electric plant, cars

of every kind, for rail and road, and such other articles of commerce as were formerly imported. Such raw materials as iron, coal, and other minerals, were plentiful in Russia, and only required to be worked.

The peasants in the villages were trained to the use of the new farm implements which the factories were turning out. They did not at first like the new system, for it meant that their holdings in each district should be united for the good of the community, and not run for their own private profits. They strongly objected to give up their independence, and receive wages, instead of pocketing their own individual profits. But they had to submit, and, on the whole, their squalid life in the villages gave way to better conditions.

The Bolshevik or Communist form of government has never been liked by other countries which have respect for private property and the rights of individuals as distinct from those of the community. Notwithstanding this, Russia was made a member of the League of Nations in 1934.

The British Empire is shown in Black. With the exceptions of the Continents and Oceans, the names of British Possessions alone are given.

26.—The British Commonwealth.

A love of voyages and of adventure is deeply rooted in the nature of the British races. The earliest settlers of our country were wanderers on land and sea. The Celts, the Scots, the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans by turn won for themselves a home on our islands, and their roving spirit still survives in the Briton of to-day. Britain did not begin colonising as early as Spain, Portugal, France, or Holland, but, having begun, she soon outstripped these nations.

The first English colony was that of Virginia, established in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, but it was not until the 18th century that the great British colonial expansion took place. The peace of 1763, by which the Seven Years' War was ended, left Britain master of North America and India, in addition to which she possessed numerous small islands in Europe and in the New World. From that date, and with our command of the sea, we had little to fear from foreign rivalry.

In 1776, owing to the folly of our statesmen, we suffered the loss of the greater part of our possessions in North America, but this disaster, though grave at the time, taught us to be more careful in handling our colonies. The American loss was compensated by the prowess of Captain Cook, who, in 1770, took possession of Australia and New Zealand in the name of King George III. Later came the annexation of Cape Colony in 1815, whereby the foundation of our African Dominion was laid.

The British Dominions and possessions in all parts of the World form to-day the greatest Empire that the world has known. In climate, these lands vary from Arctic to Equatorial conditions. The range of their natural feat-

ures extends from the ice-bound regions of Labrador to the fertile river valleys of India, and includes the vast corn-lands and prairies of Canada, the sheep runs of Australia, the gold-mining regions of South Africa, and the Equatorial belts of Nigeria, Kenya and Malaya.

According to climate, economic development, and the ability of the peoples to govern, British possessions may be classified under three headings :

(1) Countries having a good climate and inhabited by white men ; for example, Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand.

(2) Possessions having a climate not suited to Europeans, but which are valuable for their products, such as India and Malaya.

(3) Small possessions, which by their position on trade routes are useful coaling stations for our Navy and merchant ships.

Crown Colonies are those in which the control is entirely in the hands of officials appointed by the British Government ; such as Gibraltar and St Helena. In many cases the Governor is assisted by a council of members nominated by the Crown, as in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Hong-Kong, and Malaya. Others have Councils partly nominated by the Crown, and partly elected by the people. Such Colonies lie mid-way, as it were, between Crown Colonies and self-governing Colonies. Examples are Malta, Ceylon, Jamaica and Southern Rhodesia.

Self-governing Colonies.—These acknowledge the headship of the King, but conduct their home and foreign affairs independently of British sanction. Such are the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Union of South Africa, New Zealand, the Irish Free State, and Newfoundland.

Elsewhere there are **Protectorates,** usually large territories, where the native rulers govern their own peoples, while the interests of the European residents are in charge of British officials, who administer justice and control finance. Nyasaland, Uganda, Nigeria, are examples.

India.—In Chapter 9 we have learned something of the history of our Indian Empire. The government of India is in a state of transition from a Crown Colony to a self-governing Dominion. The India Office in London is under a Secretary of State, who is responsible to Parliament, while, in India, authority is vested in the Viceroy.

Canada.—The presence of French Settlers in Canada made its Government less easy. French Canadians are most numerous in the Province of Quebec, and in 1837, racial feelings led to rebellion. Time has now allayed such feelings, and self-government has removed all grounds for discontent.

In 1867, the Provinces of Canada united to form a Federal Government, named the Dominion of Canada. The Dominion Paliament deals with matters which concern all the Provinces, while local affairs are in charge of the Provincial Parliaments. **Newfoundland** and its dependency, Labrador, are independent of Canada, and have their own Parliament.

Australia.—This island continent was for many years used solely as a penal settlement, but in the 19th century its population rapidly increased, chiefly because of the gold discoveries.

The five States, namely, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and West Australia, also the island of Tasmania, have their own Parliaments. In 1900, a Federal Government was established, by which the States were united in the Commonwealth of Australia. Canberra is the Commonwealth capital.

New Zealand.—The growth of New Zealand has been hampered by trouble with the Maoris, a brave native race who time and again resisted the British advances into their country. New Zealand has representative assemblies similar to those in Australia.

South Africa.—Cape Colony—originally a Dutch settlement, became a British possession after the Napoleonic Wars in 1815. The Dutch disliked British rule, and in 1835, many of them migrated into Natal. In 1843, Natal was annexed by Britain. In later migrations, the Boers founded the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic. For more recent events see Chapter 11.

Irish Free State.—See Chapters 14 and 20.

Dates of First Australian Settlements.

OUR GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DUTIES AS CITIZENS.

Introduction—Citizenship.

1. The British Empire, extending to about a quarter of the area of the land surface of the globe, depends for its prosperity not only on the wealth and extent of its territory, but also on the manner in which its citizens exercise their rights, duties, and privileges, and on the forms of government by which its various nations are ruled and linked together.

2. The citizens of whom we are about to speak particularly, are those who share in the government of the United Kingdom and who may be living either in towns or in the country. The Athenians named a man who took no interest in the affairs of the State an "idiotes" or private person. Afterwards this word became a term of contempt; so that a Greek citizen who avoided the discharge of his public duties was regarded as a person of feeble intellect.

3. Now, as then, it is a duty as well as a privilege to take part in the government of the State; for on the proper performance of this duty depends the continuance of those rights acquired for us by the wisdom and courage of our ancestors. The United States has a written constitution which forms the basis of all its law and government: but our system of government is unwritten, and is the slow product of many centuries of change, growth, and struggle. Some knowledge of this system is necessary for us in order to use our citizenship in a useful and intelligent manner.

4. The King, the head of the State, possesses certain

powers, and exercises certain functions; Parliament possesses legislative powers and, through its responsible ministers, executive powers over the whole country; and, subject to Parliament, Town Councils, County Councils, and others have the right to frame and carry out local laws (bye-laws) for the benefit of the areas they serve.

5 But the power of King, of Parliament, and of all these local ruling bodies is "broad based upon the people's will," that is, upon the free votes of the citizens. We are, therefore, self-governed, and the people's will is the source of all power in the State.

6. The character of a State depends upon the general character of its citizens. Where they are wise, free, and strong, the State flourishes and advances; where they are feeble and vicious, the State decays and dies. Rome in its rise, fall, and decline furnishes a striking illustration of this truth.

7. If, then, we are true patriots we must seek to perfect ourselves morally, intellectually, and physically; so that we may become units of strength to society and to the local and the national government. If we are "lovers of the fatherland"—the Roman term for patriots—we shall strive, by voting in an independent and intelligent manner, to promote wise measures for "the greatest good of the greatest number" of our fellow-citizens.

8. We shall deal with our subject in the following order of arrangement:—

(1) The Sovereign.
(2) Parliament.
(3) The Great Public Offices.
(4) The Law Courts and the Administration of Justice.
(5) Local Government.
(6) Taxes and Rates.

(1) The Sovereign: His Powers and Functions.

1. **How Kings were established.**—Long ages ago, men lived in tribes or clans. Tribes, speaking the same language and having similar ideas and interests, combined to form larger communities, which, by growth and conquest, gradually became widespread nations.

2. Then the Hero strongest in council and war, either by power of brain and sword, or by election, was made ruler of the nation. He assumed such titles as Rex or Regulator, Emperor or Commander, King or Ableman. His eldest son, through family influence and power, often succeeded to his office, and thus kings were established, and the succession to the throne became hereditary.

3. **Power of the Barons.**—In early times the people were too weak and disunited to resist the King; but the barons, by combining their forces, were often strong enough to compel the King to obey their wishes. Thus from King John, in 1215, the barons forced **Magna Carta,** the first great charter of British liberty, and, fifty years later, under Simon de Montfort, they overthrew Henry III. in battle, and summoned the **First Parliament.** The power of the barons was broken by the Wars of the Roses, and was lost under the Tudors.

4. **Supremacy of Parliament.**—With the Stuarts began the struggle between King and people concerning the "Divine Right," the final issue of which was determined by the Revolution of 1688. The **Bill of Rights,** passed in 1689, limited for ever the power of the monarchy, and established on a secure basis the freedom of the people. It gave to Parliament (1) the power of the national purse; (2) absolute control of the army and navy, and of parliamentary elections; (3) complete freedom of debate; (4) the power of making and unmaking laws.

5. A further **Act of Settlement,** passed in 1701, provided for a Protestant succession to the throne, and that judges were to be appointed for life, and at fixed salaries. This wise arrangement made it less likely for judges to be influenced by the ruling power.

6. **The King's functions.**—Under the guidance of responsible advisers, the King exercises the following rights : He summons, prorogues, and dissolves Parliament. At the beginning of each parliamentary session he delivers, personally or by deputy, from the throne in the House of Lords, the **King's Speech.** This speech announces the business to be taken up during the ensuing session, and declares our relations with foreign countries. Before a **Bill** can become an **Act** it must receive the royal assent.

7. The King confers peerages, and appoints ambassadors, judges, officers in the army and navy, and all State officials. It is assumed in law that the King never dies and that he can do no wrong. This means that the government of the country never ceases, and that the public acts of the King are those of his responsible advisers.

(2) Parliament.

1. **What Parliament includes.**—When people speak about Parliament they generally mean the House of Commons. But the term has a wider meaning ; it includes King, Lords, and Commons. We have already spoken about the King, and shall now consider the origin of Parliament, and the functions of the House of Lords (Upper House) and the House of Commons (Lower House).

2. **Origin of the House of Lords.**—In ancient times the King was wont to summon a Council of his ablest men to advise him in matters of government. Afterwards, the

Aerofilms. Limited.

The Heart of the British Empire: Houses of Parliament and Westminster Abbey, London.

leading men, who had received from the King such titles of honour as **Earl** (*Saxon*) or **Baron** (*Norman*), became royal councillors, and attended court without being summoned. By-and-by their eldest sons on succeeding to their estates were confirmed in all the rights of their fathers, so that the title of Peer became hereditary, and the House of Peers became an important factor in the government of the realm.

3. **Composition of the House of Lords.**—The present House of Lords has several classes of Peers. These are (1) **Peers of the Realm** (United Kingdom), who are legislators by right of birth ; (2) **Elective Peers**—28 from Ireland elected for life, and 16 from Scotland elected to each new Parliament, the electors being the Peers of Ireland and Scotland respectively ; (3) **Spiritual Peers**—2 Archbishops and 24 Bishops of the Church of England, who sit in the House by right of their office ; (4) **Lords of Appeal**—a body of distinguished judges who form the supreme court of appeal from the inferior courts. Spiritual Peers and Lords of Appeal hold office for life, but do not transmit their right to descendants. The Chairman of the Lords is the Lord Chancellor.

4. **The House of Commons** has 615 members, of whom England and Wales return 528, Scotland 74, and Northern Ireland 13.

5. **The British Government** is an *indirect democracy*, that is, the people do not directly govern and make laws. They elect the members of the House of Commons to govern and make laws by their authority. By the Representation of the People Act (1928), every householder, or resident, or occupier of business premises, male or female, over 21 years of age, and the wives or husbands of persons so qualified have the right to vote.

6. **How a Member is elected.**—A person desirous of

being elected as a member of Parliament must wait until there is a vacancy, which may arise either by a General Election or by the death or resignation of a single member. He or she must then be nominated by a number of voters. If no other person is nominated within a certain date, the candidate becomes the member. If, however, two or more candidates are nominated, a day is fixed for polling or voting. A contest then usually follows between the various candidates, each of whom usually holds public meetings and explains his views on current questions.

7. When the election day comes, the voter goes to the polling-booth, and there receives a paper, upon which he puts a cross opposite the name of the candidate he prefers. When the voting is ended, the papers are counted, and the candidate with the majority of votes is declared to be duly elected.

8. **Political Parties.**—There are three great parties in Parliament, **Conservative** (or Unionist), **Liberal,** and **Labour** (or Socialist). The Labour party, which has steadily grown in recent years, held office first in 1924, and was again returned to power in 1929.

9. **The Prime Minister and Cabinet.**—On the assembly of a new Parliament, or after the defeat of a Government in office, the sovereign may send for the leader of the majority and ask him to form a new Government. This leader becomes **Prime Minister,** and he must choose among his followers those whom he thinks best fitted for holding the great offices of State. The holders become members of the Government, and from among them the Prime Minister chooses a still smaller group called the **Cabinet.** It considers and discusses in private our home and foreign policy, and its members are responsible for all Government Bills.

10. **Principal Cabinet Ministers.**—The principal Cabinet

Ministers are the First Lord of the Treasury, who is usually the Prime Minister ; the Lord Chancellor ; the Chancellor of the Exchequer ; the Home Secretary ; the Secretaries of State for War, for Foreign Affairs, for the Dominions, for the Colonies, and for India ; the First Lord of the Admiralty ; the Lord President of the Council ; and the Lord Privy Seal. Other members of the Government who are usually in the Cabinet are the Postmaster-General, the Secretary for Scotland, the President of the Board of Trade, and the Minister of Health. The Prime Minister presides at meetings of the Cabinet, and is responsible for the policy of the Government.

11. **How a law is made.**—In all matters, except those affecting the taxation of the people, the Upper House has the same powers of legislation as the Lower, and their methods of procedure. which are similar, are as follows : When a member proposes to make a new law, or to alter or annul an existing law, he introduces a Bill. This Bill is printed, and a copy given to each member. After it has been read twice, it is discussed in detail by the House in Committee. If read and approved a third time, it is sent to the other House to undergo a similar process. If read and approved three times in each House, it is sent to the sovereign for the royal assent, after receiving which it becomes a **law** of the country. Only the Commons have the right to introduce and consider money-bills dealing with the finance of the country.

(3) The Great Public Offices.

1. When a law is made, the next duty of Parliament is to see that the law is properly carried out. For this purpose we have the Public Offices. At the head of each is a

member of the Government. Employees in the Public Offices are called **Civil Servants.**

2. **The Treasury** is the all-important board which controls the expenditure of all the great departments of State. Its chief is the **Chancellor of the Exchequer.** When the Commons is considering the estimated annual spendings of great departments, such as the Navy, Army, and Post Office, the Chancellor is expected to explain and justify the proposed expenditure ; and afterwards he shows by means of his **Budget** how this expenditure is to be met. The Budget is the nation's balance-sheet.

3. **The Home Office.**—This department is presided over by the Home Secretary, who is responsible for the administration of law in England, and, to a limited extent, in Scotland and Ireland. He is the official head of the **police,** and should they be unable to cope with disorder in a district, he has power to call out the military. It is a part of his duty to see that Acts of Parliament relating to trades, factories, and mines are properly carried out.

4. **The War Office** is controlled by the Secretary of State for War, who is responsible for the efficiency of all our military forces—regular and territorial. He introduces bills affecting these forces, and under the Mutiny Act, 1689, he has complete control over every soldier, from the Commander-in-Chief to the latest recruit.

5. **The Foreign Office.**—The Foreign Secretary is the medium through which foreign countries communicate with our government. He is also responsible for the appointment of ambassadors, ministers, and consuls, and for the protection of British subjects and interests in foreign countries.

6. **The Dominions Office.**—This Office was created in 1925, and deals with all business connected with the self-governing Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand,

South Africa, and the Irish Free State. At its head is the Secretary of State for the Dominions.

7. **The Colonial Office.**—This Office deals with the affairs of those British possessions, which are not self-governing Dominions (excluding India). It is in charge of the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

8. **The India Office.**—India is governed by the Secretary of State for India, and by an official council in India, at the head of which is the Viceroy or Governor-General. Each province is under a Governor or other civil servant called a Commissioner. All are responsible to Paliament.

9. **The Admiralty.**—At the head of this board is the First Lord of the Admiralty, who has charge of the **Navy.** We must have a fleet as strong as possible for the following reasons: (1) We live on an island, and our Navy is our first line of **defence**; (2) in war our frontier is the enemy's coast-line (**attack**); (3) our oversea trade, upon which so much of our wealth and food-supplies depend, can only be kept secure by our command of the sea (**protection**).

10. **The Board of Education** (England) has at its head the Lord President of the Council, whose duties are to see that school buildings are satisfactory, that teachers are efficient, that all children between five and fourteen years of age attend school, and that the Education Act is properly administered. Scotland has her own **Scottish Education Department,** the head of which is the Secretary for Scotland.

11. **The Board of Trade** promotes the efficiency of our merchant fleet. Its officials supply all the statistics of our commerce, the number of our seamen, and the amount and kind of our exports and imports. It also takes charge of our lighthouses, harbours, railways, tramways, gas, and water.

12. **The Post Office.**—At the head of this office is the Postmaster-General. Two famous Postmasters were Sir Rowland Hill and Professor Fawcett. The former introduced the penny postage system throughout the United Kingdom, and the latter, though blind, carried out many useful reforms. Connected with the Post Office are the Telegraph Department, Post Office Savings-bank, Government Insurance Departments, and the Telephone Service.

13. **The Ministry of Health** concerns itself chiefly with such matters as the proper local administration of the Poor Laws, the Public Health Act, the National Health Insurance Act, and the Medical inspection of school children. The Scottish Board of Health has its headquarters in Edinburgh.

14. **The Air Ministry.**—This Board promotes the efficiency of the Royal Air Force, and has control of all Air Squadrons at Home and in British possessions abroad.

(4) The Law Courts and the Administration of Justice.

1. **Two Classes of Courts.**—The law of England (including Ireland and Wales) is different from that of Scotland; but all the law courts of the United Kingdom may be grouped into two classes: (1) Courts for the trial of **criminal cases,** and (2) Courts for the trial of **civil cases.** The former courts deal with offences committed against the community, and the punishment on conviction may vary from a warning by the judge (First Offenders' Act) to the death penalty. The latter courts deal with disputes between individuals regarding such subjects as lands and contracts. The loser in a civil case may suffer the loss of property or of some right which he claimed.

Will. F. Taylor.

The Law Courts, Strand, London.

2. The highest court in the realm is The House of Lords. It is the **Supreme Court of Appeal,** and is composed of distinguished judges, who have been raised to the peerage for the purpose of deciding cases of great importance. The Lord Chancellor presides, and judgment is given in accordance with the law of the country from which the appeal is taken.

3. **English Courts.**—Next in importance to the House of Lords are the **Court of Appeal** and the **High Court of Justice.** The former decides cases appealed from the lower courts. The latter takes the following different names according to its functions : the **Chancery Court,** the chief equity court of the kingdom ; the **Admiralty Court,** for deciding shipping disputes ; the **Probate Court,** for ecclesiastical matters and the interpretation of wills ; the **Divorce Court ;** the **Bankruptcy Court ;** and, finally, and perhaps most important of all, the **King's Bench,** which decides important cases of all kinds.

4. The **Assize Courts** are *circuit courts* : that is, they are held in the chief towns, generally three times a year, the judges travelling from one place to another to hold them. They decide both civil and criminal cases. Below all these are the **County Courts,** and lower still the **Police** and **Justice of the Peace Courts.** They decide minor cases relating to disputes about property, or to petty crimes.

5. **Scottish Courts.**—The **Court of Session** for civil cases, and the **High Court of Justiciary** for criminal cases, are the two supreme courts of Scotland. The former has two divisions, an *Inner House* and an *Outer House.* From the decision of a single judge in the Outer House an appeal may be made to the Inner House, or to the whole court, and from this again there is an appeal to the House of Lords. The High Court of Justiciary, like an English Assize Court, goes on circuit for the trial of criminal cases.

6. **The Sheriff.**—Under the Court of Session and the High Court are the **Sheriff Court** and the **County Court.** The Sheriff had at one time almost unlimited powers. He is both a civil and a criminal judge, and decides cases of considerable importance. The **Sheriff-Substitute** is his assistant judge, and deals with cases of less importance. From his decisions there is an appeal to the Sheriff, and from the Sheriff to the Court of Session.

7. The lowest Scottish courts, as in England, are the **Police Court** and the **Justice of the Peace Court.** These deal, for the most part, with petty offences.

8. **Juries.**—Juries are bodies of ratepayers selected by the Sheriffs to heár the evidence at trials, and to decide as to the guilt or innocence of accused persons. This decision is named their *verdict.* In England the jury is usually composed of twelve men, whose verdict in criminal cases must be unanimous. In Scotland the jury in a criminal case may bring in any of the following verdicts : "guilty," "not guilty," or "not proven."

(5) Local Government.

1. While Parliament legislates in national matters, each locality deals with questions peculiar to itself. The duty of dealing effectively with local matters is the business of Town and County Councils.

2. **Town Councils.**—Cities and towns of any importance have the right to hold property and rule their own affairs. Their government is conducted by chosen persons, consisting in England of a Mayor (or Lord Mayor), Aldermen, and Councillors, and in Scotland of a Provost (or Lord Provost), Bailies, and Councillors. Their duties include the cleaning, paving, lighting, and guarding of the

County Hall, London.

[*Topical Press Agency.*

town, the supplying of water, the administration of the Public Health Act, and of elementary education. Some councils have sundry other duties, such as conducting the local tramway systems. The chief officer and adviser of the Council is the Town Clerk, who is supported by other officials. All ratepayers, men and women, have a vote, and are eligible to hold any rank in a Town Council.

3. **County Councils.**—The business of counties, exclusive of that of the towns within the county, is carried on by County Councils. These have, like Town Councils, powers of levying rates, and their duty is to maintain roads and bridges, to manage asylums and poor-houses, and administer various Acts of Parliament. Members are elected to a County Council very much as members are elected to a Town Council.

4. **Education.**—In 1870 an Education Act made education compulsory in England, and established School Boards. Two years later a similar Act was passed for Scotland. In 1902 School Boards were abolished in England, and their duties transferred to Committees of the Town and County Councils. In Scotland School Boards survived until 1919, when their duties were transferred to Education Authorities, which were set up in counties and county burghs. A further change was made in 1930, when the Scottish system became uniform with that of England, and education was put under the control of Town and County Councils.

(6) Taxes and Rates.

1. Money levy by an Act of Parliament for a national purpose is called a **Tax.** Taxes are needed for such objects as the support of the army and navy, and they are either *direct* or *indirect*. Direct taxes are (1) the **Income Tax,**

levied on all incomes above £130 ; (2) the **Inhabited House Duty,** paid on houses whose annual rental is £20 or upwards ; (3) **Death** and **Succession Duties,** paid by an heir on succeeding to any property, either in lands or money.

2. Indirect taxes are (1) **Custom Duties,** levied on imported articles, such as tea, tobacco, and wines ; (2) **Stamp Duties,** levied on playing-cards, patent medicines, legal documents, money receipts, etc. ; (3) **Excise Duties,** levied on spirits, beer, etc., made in this country ; on liveried servants, on carriages, and on dogs.

3. Money levied from the inhabitants of a locality by local authorities, such as Town or County Councils, is called a **Rate.** *Burgh Assessments* are rates for the lighting, cleaning, watching, etc., of a city. Other rates are levied for education, water-supply, and the relief of the poor.

SUMMARY OF CHIEF EVENTS SINCE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1066. **The Norman Conquest,** by which William, Duke of Normandy, became King William I. of England.

1100–1135. Reign of Henry I., son of William. He married Matilda, daughter of Margaret (Saxon) Queen of Scotland, thus uniting Saxon and Norman Lines.

1154. Henry II., Plantagenet, quarrelled with Church, which led to murder of **Thomas Becket,** Archbishop of Canterbury (1171). Henry held great possessions in France.

1189. Richard I., son of Henry II., passed most of his reign in fighting in the Crusades in Palestine. Was succeeded by his brother John, a worthless King, but forced by his barons to sign **Magna Charta.**

1272–1307. Reign of **Edward I.** Powerful king; conquered Wales, but was successfully opposed in Scotland by Wallace and Bruce.

1296 to 1314. Scottish War of Independence, won at **Bannockburn.**

1327–1377. Reign of Edward III. Waged war with France. First used gunpowder at battle of **Cressy.** Won battles of Cressy and Poitiers. **John Wycliffe** translated Bible into English.

1418. Henry V. began to reign. Great soldier. Won battle of **Agincourt,** and was promised French crown. His son Henry VI. lost French possessions. **Joan of Arc** defeated English at Orleans. Was cruelly burned by English.

1461 to 1483. Wars of the Roses, between rival Houses of Lancaster and York. Wars ended by marriage of Henry VII. (Lancaster) with princess Elizabeth of York.

1476. **William Caxton** first set up printing press in England.

1492. **Columbus** discovered America.

1498. **Vasco de Gama** discovered sea route to India.

1509. Henry VIII. began to reign. James IV. of Scotland went to war with him and was slain in battle of **Flodden** (1513).

1532. Henry's quarrel with Pope leads to **Reformation** in England.

1554. **Shakespeare** born.

1558 to 1603. Reign of Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. She put Mary, Queen of Scots, to death (1587).

1588. **Defeat of Spanish Armada.**

1603. James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary, succeeded to English throne, thus accomplishing **Union of the Crowns.**

1605. Gunpowder Plot.

1620. **Pilgrim Fathers** sailed to America, and founded New England.

1625. Charles I. succeeded his father James I. Believed in his "divine right" to govern, resulting in constant quarrels with Parliament and Civil War. Rise of **Oliver Cromwell.** After defeat, Charles was tried and executed (1649). From then to 1688 Cromwell was Lord Protector.

1660. The **Restoration.** Charles II., son of Charles I., became King. Passed severe laws against the Puritans.

1665. Great Plague of London, followed by Great Fire, 1666.

1679. Persecutions of Covenanters in Scotland.

1685. James II., brother of Charles II., became King. Was hated for his persecutions of Protestants. Fled to France on arrival of his nephew, William of Orange.

1689. **The Revolution.** William III. and Mary II. were crowned King and Queen. Parliament now became the chief power.

1692. Massacre of Macdonalds of Glencoe left stain on William's memory.

1702–1714. Reign of Anne, daughter of James II. Period of Marlborough's famous victories at Blenheim, Ramillies, and other places abroad.

1714 to **1727.** Queen Anne was succeeded by George, Elector of Hanover, a great-grandson of James I., who became king as **George I.**

Personal rule ceased with the fall of the Stewarts, the government henceforth being entrusted to the leaders in Parliament. **Sir Robert Walpole** became first Prime Minister.

1715. **First Jacobite Rebellion.** James, the Old Pretender (son of James II.), landed in Scotland, but, seeing little prospect of success, he returned to France.

1727 to **1760.** George I. died, and his son **George II.** became king.

Second Jacobite Rebellion. This second attempt to seize the throne was
1745. made by Prince Charles Edward Stewart (the Bonnie Prince Charlie of the Jacobite songs).

1746. At Culloden, he was defeated, and later escaped to France.

The Rise of our Indian Empire.

Before 1751, our territory in India consisted of trading stations at Madras,
1600. Calcutta, and Bombay, which had been acquired by the East India Company in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The success of the British traders aroused the envy of France, and the French governor of Madras plotted with a native Prince to drive the English away.

1751. As soon as the English learned this, they prepared for war, and Robert Clive, with a small force, promptly attacked and took possession of Arcot. At Calcutta the British residents were imprisoned in the **Black Hole** by
1757. Surajah Dowlah. At **Plassey** Clive met Surajah Dowlah's army, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon it. From this victory dates the rise of our Indian Empire.

The Conquest of Canada.

The French, at this period, possessed Canada, and Louisiana, in America. By erecting a line of forts along the course of the Mississippi river, they tried to prevent the British colonists on the east coast of America from trading in the interior of the country.

1759. Pitt sent General Wolfe to attack the French fortress of **Quebec.** In the silence of night Wolfe landed his army, and by daybreak he had his men placed in battle array, outside the town.

The French general, the brave Montcalm, immediately gave battle, and was defeated and killed. Wolfe also was killed during the action, but his great victory, by which Canada was added to the British Empire, gained him immortal fame.

1760 to 1820. George II. died in 1760, and was succeeded by his grandson **George III.**

The American Colonies.

The British government considered that, in return for having been saved from French conquest, the British colonists in America ought to pay a share in the cost of the recent wars. To secure the money, the Government put taxes on various goods landed in America. A great outcry arose amongst the colonists, and they refused to pay the taxes. The Government therefore withdrew them all, except the tax on tea. A daring attack by the colonists on tea-ships in Boston Harbour brought matters to a head.

1765. 1773.

1775. War broke out with the colonists, who were defeated (but with great loss to the British) at **Bunker's Hill.**

1776. A **Declaration of Independence** was adopted by a Congress of the colonists at Philadelphia.

1783. The war was ended by a treaty signed at Versailles, by which the independence of the United States was recognised.

1789. The **French Revolution** broke out. The French people, driven desperate by tyranny, excessive taxation, and poverty, overthrew the government, and abolished all distinction of social rank. They adopted a Republican constitution, and put their king, Louis XVI., to death. Their extravagant deeds involved them in war with neighbouring countries, including Britain.

1793.

In these wars, **Napoleon Bonaparte,** a French officer of great genius, rose to distinction, and quickly advanced to the supreme command of the Republican army. Under his leadership the French conquered all their enemies except Britain, whose navy was the principal check upon them.

1798. At the **Nile,** the British fleet under **Admiral Nelson** destroyed Napoleon's fleet, and thus prevented his invasion of India.

1803. 1805. Napoleon assembled an army at Boulogne to invade this country. His purpose was defeated by Nelson, who at **Trafalgar** completely destroyed the combined fleets of France and Spain.

Henceforward Napoleon (made Emperor of the French in 1804) had no power by sea, and the war was carried on entirely by land. In the **Peninsula**

1808. (Spain and Portugal), the British army, under Wellington, began a series of campaigns against the French, which lasted until 1814, when Wellington finally drove the French back into France. At the same time Napoleon was defeated by the combined Russian, Austrian, and Prussian armies at **Leipsic,** and was forced to surrender to the allies at Paris and to retire to the island of Elba.

1815. Napoleon left Elba, collected his old followers, and made a last desperate attempt to recover his lost power. This campaign, which lasted for 100 days, was finished by the great battle of **Waterloo,** in which Napoleon's power was finally crushed.

Era of Progress and Reform.

After the battle of Waterloo, a new historical period began, which may be distinguished as a period of peace, progress and reform, just as the period which ended in 1815 was one of conquest and glory.

Some of the events, however, which most truly belong to the succeeding period, actually happened during the earlier period.

1759. James Watt invented the **steam engine.**

1769. Arkwright, Hargreaves, Crompton, and Cartwright invented their machines for spinning and weaving cotton.

1770. Captain Cook visited Australia and New Zealand, taking possession of them in the name of King George III.

1800. Parliamentary Union between Britain and Ireland.

1815. Cape Colony became a British possession.

1820. George III. died, and was succeeded by his son **George IV.**

1825. **First Railway opened,** between Darlington and Stockton.

For many years after Napoleonic Wars the chief concern of British statesmen was with reform of government to lighten the burdens of the people.

1829. The **Roman Catholic Relief Act** was passed, by which the civil disabilities
1830. of the members of that Church were relieved. George IV. died, and was
1832. succeeded by his brother **William IV.** The **First Reform Act.**

1837 to 1901. **Queen Victoria** began to reign, 1837.

1838. Electric Telegraphs introduced.

1840. Penny postage was established.

1846. The Corn Laws were abolished.

1851. The First Great Exhibition was opened, in London.

1877. Telephone invented.

1854. **Crimean War** began. Britain and France took the side of Turkey in a quarrel which arose between Turkey and Russia. The British and French armies invaded the Crimea, in order to reduce the great Russian fortress of Sebastopol. The battles of **Alma, Balaclava,** and **Inkerman** were fought, in all of which Russia was defeated. Next year Sebastopol fell, and, shortly
1855. afterwards, peace was made.

Colonial and Foreign Events, 1850-1932.

1839. **China.**—Britain's first war with China arose because the Chinese objected to British merchants sending opium from India to China. It resulted in **Hong Kong** becoming a British possession. In 1856 and 1860 other wars were entered into with China, the results of which were that certain Chinese ports were opened to British trade, and that British influence in China became
1898. strong. In 1898, Russia received rights to occupy territories on the northern coast of China, and immediately other European Powers—Britain, France,

1900. and Germany—took steps to gain similar grants of land. This led to an uprising among the Chinese "Boxers" to massacre all the foreigners. Before the powers could send forces sufficient to cope with the outbreak, many Europeans had been slain. The Boxers marched to Pekin, and the foreigners were obliged to take shelter in the British Legation. Here they were besieged by the Boxers, but were freed on the arrival of the international forces. For these outrages the Powers claimed heavy damages from China.

1882. **Egypt.**—Britain and France intervened in the affairs of Egypt, owing to a rebellion which broke out under Arabi. The British fleet bombarded Alexandria, and a British Army scattered the rebels at **Tel-el-Kebir.** Another insurrection, led by the Mahdi, broke out in the **Sudan. General Gordon** was
1885. besieged in Khartoum, and slain two days before the arrival of a British
1898. relieving force. The insurrection was finally crushed by Lord Kitchener at **Omdurman.**
1902. Aswan Dam constructed.
1922. The British Protectorate over Egypt was brought to a close, but British influence remained strong. The Sudan is under British control (capital Khartoum).

South Africa.

1815. Britain annexed Cape Colony. Earlier Dutch Settlers (Boers) retired to Natal.
1838. Britain annexed Natal. Boers trekked northwards and founded Transvaal
1853. Republic and Orange Free State.
1877. Britain annexed the Boer States, which led to the first **Boer War.** British
1881. were defeated at Majuba Hill, and the Transvaal was restored to the Boers.
1885. Discovery of gold in the Transvaal.
1899. Second **Boer War.** The Boers fought bravely.
1900. At Paardeberg, Lord Roberts captured a large Boer Army under General Cronje. He afterwards marched to Johannesburg and Pretoria and annexed both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.
1910. Union of South Africa formed.
1915. German South-West Africa was annexed by General Botha.
1931. The States of South Africa were granted independent governments under the headship of the King.

Australia and New Zealand.

1770. Captain Cook annexed these lands in the name of George III.
1851. Gold was discovered in Australia, which drew great numbers of emigrants.
1900. The States of Australia and the island of Tasmania united in a Federation or Commonwealth, under a Governor-General appointed by the Crown.
1931. The first Air Mail left England for Australia.
1934. (October). Melbourne was reached from England by air in 71 hours.

Canada. (See also pages 7 and 113).

1867. All the Provinces except Newfoundland and Labrador were united as the Dominion of Canada.

1931. Canada, Australia and New Zealand were granted independent governments under the Headship of the King.

India since 1857. (For previous events, see page 43).

1857. The **Indian Mutiny** broke out among the Sepoys, or native troops, who seized the military stations at Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow, and cruelly massacred many of the British, including women and children. In the end Delhi was taken from the mutineers, and at Lucknow, the besieged British under Havelock were rescued by Sir Colin Campbell.

1858. India came under direct control of the British Government.

1876. Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

1907. The Anglo-Russian trade treaty was signed, giving up Russian claims in countries immediately north of India.

1912. New Delhi became Capital of the Indian Empire.

1919. The Government of India Act gave the Indian peoples a large measure of self-government, but agitations were continued under Mr Ghandi's leadership.

1926. Outbreaks of violence occurred, resulting in many deaths and arrests.

1930. The Simon Report on India was published.

1932. Conference between Indian and British leaders in London.

1935. Parliament adopted new plans for the better government of India.

Home and European Events, 1901-1934.

1901 to 1910. **Queen Victoria** died and was succeeded by her eldest son, **Edward VII.**

1902. British-Japanese alliance was formed.

1904. An agreement was made between England and France (*Entente Cordiale*) respecting French claims in Newfoundland and Egypt.

1905. Renewal and extension of British-Japanese alliance.

1908. The Territorial Force formed. The Children's and Old Age Pension Acts were passed.

1910. Edward VII. died and **George V.** ascended the throne.

1911. By the **Parliament Act,** the veto of the House of Lords over bills passed by the House of Commons was abolished if the bills were again passed by the Commons in three successive sessions, with an interval of two years. It was also provided that Parliament should not sit longer than five years.

1912. The National Health Insurance Act was passed.
Agitations in Ulster against Home Rule.

1914 to 1918. **The Great War.**

1914. (June). The Austrian Archduke, Francis Ferdinand, was assassinated at Sarajevo, in Bosnia.

1914. (July). Serbia accepted the Austrian Note with slight reservations. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

1914. (August). Germany declared war on Russia and France, and invaded Belgium. Britain declared war on Germany, and France declared war on Austria-Hungary.

1914. (August 24 to September 3). The retreat of the British Army from **Mons.** August 26-31, Russians were defeated at **Tannenberg.** September 6-10, the Battle of the **Marne,** resulting in the withdrawal of the German Armies to the Aisne.

1914. (October). The first battle of **Ypres.**

1914. (November). Three British cruisers sunk in action off coast of Chili.

1914. (December). British Naval victory off **Falkland Islands.**

1915. (February). German submarine blockade of the British Isles begun.

1915. (April). Second Battle of **Ypres.** Poison gas first used by the Germans. The Allied occupation of Gallipoli began.

1915. (May). Italy joined the Allies.

1916. (February-December). German assaults on **Verdun** end in failure.

1917. **The Russian Revolution.** The Czar was put to death, and Russia was broken up into a number of Republics.

1917. **United States of America** declared war on Germany.

1917. (July). Great advance of the British and French on the Western Front.

1918. A great German advance in the West began. The coming of American troops helped to turn the tide of battle, and Germany was driven back, this time hopelessly. The allied advance ended in the shattering of German power.

1918. (November 11). **The Armistice.**

1919. (June). **Peace Treaty** signed.

1919 to 1920. The **Peace Conference.** Germany lost all her Colonies, and was heavily fined in war indemnities. Austria-Hungary and Turkey lost much territory.

1920. **The League of Nations** was formed, to promote peace between nations, by submitting disputes to be considered by the League.

1920. The British trade slump began.

1920. Bolshevist government established in Russia.

1920 to 1926. Period of continual disputes at Home, chiefly about higher wages and shorter hours for workers.

1922. British-Japanese alliance ended.

1924. First Labour government was defeated for being involved in secret correspondence with Bolshevists.

1924 to 1929. Conservative Government under Mr Baldwin.

1926. Great **General Strike** declared by Trades Union Congress. Colliers, dock-labourers, and other workers ceased work. The public in thousands took their places. Strikers resumed work within a fortnight, except coal miners, who remained on strike for several months.

1929 to 1931. Second labour government. **Crisis** in **National Credit** due to overspending. New taxes imposed.

1931. **National Government** elected, and National credit restored.

1931. Import Duties Act passed, putting tariffs on foreign goods.

1931. Ottawa Conference, to improve trade between Britain and her Dominions.

1932. Interest on 5 per cent. War Loan was reduced to 3½ per cent.

1933. Japan occupied Manchuria.

1934. Russia was received into the League of Nations.

A BIOGRAPHICAL SUMMARY.

Thomas Newcomen (1663-1729), a pioneer in the application of steam-power to machinery. In 1725 he patented his pumping engine used for drawing water from mines.

James Hargreaves (1720-1778), inventor of the "spinning-jenny," which produced a revolution in the cotton industry of England in the latter half of the eighteenth century.

Robert Clive, Baron Plassey (1725-1774), born in Shropshire; entered East India Company's service in Madras at nineteen; captured Arcot with a small force in face of great native army. After the atrocity of the Black Hole of Calcutta by Surajah Dowlah, Clive marched against and routed that Nabob's great army at Plassey, and so founded the British Empire in India.

James Wolfe (1727-1759), British general; fought at Fontenoy and Culloden; was given command by Pitt of the forces in Canada against the French; surprised the French garrison in Quebec by a bold and clever stratagem; captured the city, but fell in the moment of victory. As the result of his victory the whole of Canada was soon afterwards added to the British Empire.

Sir Richard Arkwright (1732-1792), inventor of the spinning-frame, an improvement on Hargreaves' machine. In 1771 he established the first spinning-mill worked by water. He was knighted in 1776.

James Watt (1736-1819), inventor of the modern steam-engine; born at Greenock; toiled many years to improve the steam-engine, which at that time was of very limited capacity. Succeeded so well that steam power became almost the exclusive motive force in mills, factories, and in the production of the world's mechanical work generally.

Edmund Cartwright (1743-1823), invented the "power-loom," which greatly accelerated the weaving of cloths. His invention brought wealth to the mill-owners, but he benefited little by it. Parliament granted him £10,000.

Samuel Crompton (1753-1827), was born at Bolton. He invented the "spinning-mule," which greatly increased the power of cotton production.

John Loudon Macadam (1756-1836), Scottish engineer, invented the process of road-making which is named after him, and was widely adopted.

Thomas Telford (1757-1834), a great civil engineer, built many bridges, canals and roads in Britain. The Menai Suspension Bridge, the Dean Bridge in Edinburgh, and the Caledonian Canal are among his achievements. He constructed hundreds of miles of roads.

Horatio, Lord Nelson (1758-1805), greatest of English sailors; went to sea at twelve, and rapidly rose to command. His fame rests on his great victories over the French in the Revolutionary war. In command of the *Agamemnon* he chased them from the Mediterranean. He won (under Jervis) the battle of St Vincent over the Spaniards, destroyed the French fleet at Aboukir Bay, defeated the Danish fleet off Copenhagen, and finally annihilated the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar. He lost his life in the moment of victory, but died in a blaze of glory.

William Wilberforce (1759-1833), philanthropist and member of Parliament; laboured through life to put an end to negro slavery. In 1807 his Emancipation Act was passed, by which trading in slaves was stopped in British Colonies, and in 1833, just before his death, Parliament granted £20,000,000 to set free the slaves previously purchased.

Henry Bell (1767-1830), a native of Linlithgowshire; learned ship-modelling at Bo'ness; built the *Comet*, 1812, which steamed up and down the Clyde, and was the first steamboat in Europe.

Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington (1769-1852), greatest of English soldiers; born in Dublin; entered army in 1787; distinguished himself in Mahratta War in India; took command of army in Peninsular War, 1809, and there showed extraordinary genius as a general. By successive stages he drove the French out of Spain, completing the confusion of Napoleon's schemes, which led to the latter's abdication and retirement to Elba (1814). On Napoleon's reappearance next year Wellington took command of the allied armies against him, and in the memorable battle of Waterloo completed his overthrow. Was Prime Minister 1828-1830.

George Stephenson (1781-1848), inventor of the steam locomotive; gained his first knowledge of engines when a lad working as fireman at a colliery near Newcastle. He afterwards invented an engine of a kind not previously known: one which could propel itself along a railway and draw cars or waggons with it. To this invention is due the whole system of steam railways.

Henry Temple, Viscount Palmerston (1784-1865), statesman; entered Parliament 1807; became War Secretary two years later, and from then until his death was, with few exceptions, a member of each government. He was a vigorous defender of British interests, and his bold yet skilful diplomacy made British rights highly respected abroad. Was Premier during Crimean War and Indian Mutiny, and also at his death. Was highly popular.

Lord Raglan (1788-1855), Field-Marshal. Served in the Peninsular Wars. In 1854 he was Commander of the British troops in the Crimea, and died at Sebastopol.

Sir Robert Peel (1788-1850), statesman; entered Parliament 1809, and successively filled various posts in Conservative governments. Was opposed to Free Trade until 1845, but the terrible results of the potato famine in Ireland, and the powerful agitation carried on in favour of Free Trade, led him to change his views; and in 1846, he repealed the Corn Laws, thereby allowing the free importation of foreign grain. For his courage in thus carrying out his convictions he lost favour with his party and retired from office.

Lord John Russell (1792-1878), statesman; framed Reform Bill under Earl Grey; laboured for repeal of Corn Laws; was Foreign Secretary during Crimean War, but did not manage it well; was twice Premier.

Sir Henry Havelock (1795-1857), general; served in India. On outbreak of Mutiny marched to relief of Cawnpore and Lucknow, but was besieged in Lucknow by the rebels, until relieved by Sir Colin Campbell. His health gave way during siege, and he died shortly after the relief.

Sir Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde (1792-1863), great soldier; led Highland Brigade in Crimean War, and won battles of Alma and Balaclava; held command of forces in India during Mutiny, which he finally suppressed.

Sir Rowland Hill (1795-1879), schoolmaster, and afterwards secretary to Post-master-General. Carried out great reforms in the postal service, notably penny postage.

Richard Cobden (1804-1865), was the apostle of Free Trade, and the most powerful advocate of abolition of Corn Laws, services which won for him the lasting gratitude of the country.

Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield (1804-1881), statesman and novelist; entered Parliament 1837; took Tory side against Free Trade in 1846, but turned Free Trader when Chancellor of Exchequer in 1852; was twice Premier. He carried out a strong foreign policy; purchased half of Suez Canal shares for Britain, and proclaimed Queen Victoria as Empress of India. His periods of leisure were passed in producing a series of brilliant novels, the best known of which are *Lothair*, *Endymion*, *Coningsby*.

William Ewart Gladstone (1809-1898), statesman and orator; born at Liverpool; entered Parliament 1832; became leader of House of Commons 1865, and Premier 1869; after a brilliant campaign became member for Midlothian 1880, and again Premier; was Premier third time 1886, and fourth time in 1892. During his long career he introduced many notable reforms, among which were the Employers' Liability Act, and third Reform and Redistribution Acts. Failed to carry his famous Home Rule Bill introduced in 1886; retired in 1895. He was a man of supreme ability and force of character, and from 1865 onwards was unquestioned leader of Liberal party.

John Bright (1811-1889), statesman; took active part with Cobden in agitation against Corn Laws. A lover of peace, and unflinching opponent of war. Left Gladstone's government in 1882 on Egyptian question, and opposed his Home Rule Bill.

David Livingstone (1815-1873), missionary and explorer; born at Blantyre, Lanarkshire; went to South-East Africa 1840, ascended the Zambesi 1853, and afterwards explored the whole course of that river; discovered Lake Nyasa; died in Central Africa, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Paul Kruger (1825-1904), President of the Transvaal Republic, 1881-1900; opposed the British in the South African War.

Robert Cecil, Marquis of Salisbury (1830-1903), statesman; entered Parliament 1853; was Secretary for India in 1866, and again in 1874; became Foreign Secretary in 1851, and leader of Conservative party in same year on death of Lord Beaconsfield. Has been Prime Minister and Foreign Secretary four times since 1885. He was a direct descendant of William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, Queen Elizabeth's chief adviser.

Earl Roberts (1832-1914), Field Marshal. Served in many parts of the Empire; made historic march from Kabul to Kandahar in 1880; took prominent part in winning Transvaal war; died in France in 1914.

Charles George Gordon (1833-1885), general; served in Crimea; stamped out rebellion in China 1860; was appointed Governor of Soudan 1877, an office which he resigned in 1880, but resumed in 1884 in order to carry out the evacuation of that country; was shut up in Khartoum, and slain by the Arabs before the arrival of British aid.

Joseph Chamberlain (1836-1914), statesman; entered Parliament in 1876; was made Secretary for Colonies in 1895; conducted negotiations which led to the Transvaal War; resigned the Secretaryship to advocate Fiscal Reform.

Earl Cromer (1841-1917), Diplomatist; made great reputation by his work in Egypt in adjusting the financial affairs of that country and bringing it prosperity.

Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922), inventor of the Telephone; born in Edinburgh, but went to America in 1870, where he became Professor of Physiology in Boston University.

Arthur James Balfour, Earl Balfour (1848-1930), statesman; became prominent in Parliament in 1880. As Chief Secretary for Ireland in Lord Salisbury's Government he gained great credit for his firm rule; was Prime Minister 1902-1905; took active part in Peace Conference, 1919.

Earl Kitchener of Khartoum (1850-1916), Field-Marshal. Won renown as a soldier in Egypt, India, South Africa, and other parts of the Empire; carried on successful campaign against the Boers in the Transvaal War; was made Secretary for War in 1914, and built up a great army against the Germans; was drowned in the sinking of H.M.S. *Hampshire* in 1916, while voyaging to Russia.

Herbert Henry Asquith, Earl of Oxford (1852-1928), statesman; entered Parliament in 1886, and was Chancellor of the Exchequer 1905-8; was Prime Minister from 1908 until 1916, which covered the troubled time of the Ulster rebellion from Home Rule, and the outbreak of the Great War; was succeeded in Premiership by Mr Lloyd George in 1916. An eloquent speaker, and a man of lofty character.

Sir John French, Earl of Ypres (1852-1925), Field-Marshal; served in Egypt and South Africa with notable success; was Commander-in-Chief of British Forces in France during first year of Great War.

Sir Leander Starr Jameson (1853-1917), a prominent South African, and friend of Cecil Rhodes; raided the Transvaal in 1895, which stirred up Dutch enmity against the British. In 1904 he was made Premier of the Cape Parliament.

Cecil Rhodes (1853-1902), born in England, but went to South Africa in 1871 and made a fortune in the diamond fields of Kimberley; head of the Chartered Company of Rhodesia named after him; after the Jameson Raid he retired from politics; founded the Rhodes Scholarships at Oxford.

Earl Haig (1861-1928), Field Marshal. Served with distinction in Soudan, Africa and India. Succeeded Lord French as Commander of the British Forces in France, and led his army to victory in the final overthrow of the Germans in 1918.

Louis Botha (1862-1919), General in Boer Army; after Peace settlement he became Premier of Transvaal, and in 1910 was made first Prime Minister of South African Union; annexed German S.W. Africa in 1915.

David Lloyd George (born 1863), statesman; was Chancellor of Exchequer when the Great War broke out; became Prime Minister in 1916, and by his vigour, resource, and driving power rekindled the spirit of victory in the hearts of the people at home and the soldiers abroad, with immense effect in bringing defeat to the Germans; took a leading part in the Peace Conference.

J. Ramsay Macdonald (born 1866), statesman; connected with Press in early days; entered Parliament in 1906 as Labour member; was Prime Minister and Foreign Secretary in first Labour Government, 1924; again Prime Minister in Labour Government, 1929, and in National Government, 1931.

Stanley Baldwin (born 1867), statesman; Chancellor of Exchequer, 1922, and arranged in America how British War Debt to America was to be paid, 1923; was Prime Minister 1924-1929; prominent leader in National Government of 1931.

M. H. Ghandi (born 1869), famous Indian National leader; partly educated in England, where he received legal training; attended Indian Conference in London in native garb, 1930.

Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924), Leader in Russian Revolution, 1917, in which Bolshevik Government was established; a ruthless Dictator, but was held in honour almost amounting to reverence by the Russians.

Sir John Simon (born 1873), statesman; entered Parliament 1906, became Home Secretary, 1915; served in Royal Air Force in France, 1917; Chairman of India Commission 1927-30; Foreign Secretary in National Government.

Signor Marconi (born 1874), famous Italian electrician, and inventor of wireless telegraphy.

J. H. Thomas (born 1875), Secretary of Railwaymen's Union; entered Parliament, 1910; was Colonial Secretary in Labour Government, 1924, and Secretary for Dominions in National Government, 1931.

W. T. Cosgrave (born 1880), President of Irish Free State, 1922-32; leader of opposition in de Valera's Government, 1932.

Benito Mussolini (born 1881), famous Fascist leader; became Prime Minister of Italian Government, 1922.

Eamon de Valera (born 1882), born in New York; father Spanish, mother Irish leader of Sinn Fein ("Ourselves") Party in 1917; President of Irish Free State, 1932; an ardent Republican.

King Alexander I. (1888-1934), became King of Yugo-Slavia 1921; failing to reconcile Provinces with Serbian rule, took Government in his own hands; was assassinated at Marseilles, 1934, along with French Foreign Minister.

Adolf Hitler (born 1889), native of Austria; leader of the Nazis or National Socialists; advocated Germany for Germans, and expulsion of Jews, Poles, and Slavs. A national idol, he rose to be President of the German Republic in 1934.

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